

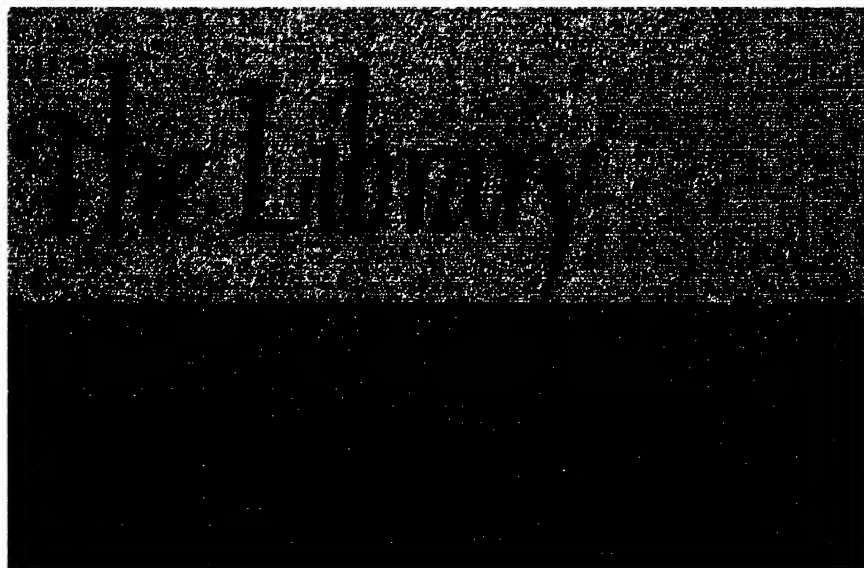
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Fargo
The library in the school



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The Library in the School

THE
LIBRARY
IN THE
SCHOOL

FOURTH EDITION COMPLETELY REVISED AND REWRITTEN

By
Lucile F. Fargo

CHICAGO 1947

AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION

Twelfth Printing, October, 1965

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Manufactured in the United States

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*TO the boys and girls of North Central High, now grown, who
once made school library work a challenge to one librarian,
and*

*TO the American Association of School Librarians, to all
of whom postwar library work now brings a new challenge.*

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Foreword

The fifteen years of experience, experimentation, and progress in school library work which have intervened since this book first appeared have rendered it impossible to undertake a fourth edition in the form of a patch-work revision. A complete restatement was demanded in which the school library was presented not alone as a reading, reference, and activity center at times concerned for its own existence, but as (a) a communications center in which were assembled and through which were routed to teachers and pupils the many and varied materials of learning, printed and audio-visual, now in use in schools; and (b) as a mature and well-established agency no longer arguing for its place in the educational program or of questionable status in the library world, but accepted on both sides as an indispensable.

The present edition is such a restatement. Its framework and organization are similar to that used before; but the text has been rewritten with such changes in tone, emphasis, and coverage as the present status of the library in the school suggests.

As earlier, the book is primarily a text dealing with library work at the secondary school level. But a pupil's library experience should, like his total educational experience, be a continuous process; and unless the junior or senior high school librarian understands and can build not alone on what has gone before, but also towards what is to come, she is not prepared to work effectively. As a matter of fact, many secondary school librarians are now acting, or may at any time be called upon to act, in a supervisory capacity in relation to the entire library program of the local school district from kindergarten to senior high. In these circumstances, preparation cannot be too highly specialized. The present book is accordingly a *basic* text, dealing with principles, attitudes, institutions, administrative and financial backgrounds, and fundamentals of method valid all along the line. If in the application of method, reference is more frequently made to the

secondary school, it is because of the availability of the excellent text for work in lower grades, *Administering Library Service in the Elementary School*, by Gardiner and Baisden, and a growing number of attractive library instruction manuals providing ample application at the elementary level.

The book is not a manual of technical processes such as cataloging, but is concerned rather with the application of such processes to school situations. Here again the reason is the availability of many excellent manuals to which the student is referred if he has not already encountered them in his progress through library school.

Once more the author wishes to record her appreciation for the help in the preparation of this new edition received from many quarters: from the editorial staff of the American Library Association and from its Department of Information and Advisory Services; from the Library Bureau Division of Remington, Rand, Inc. for plates and drawings; from many individuals in the fields of education and of librarianship who have contributed ideas or read the manuscript critically; from the National Education Association, the National Society for the Study of Education, the H. W. Wilson Company, and others for permission to quote; and from the School of Library Science of Western Reserve University for office space and the use of varied resources during the year's leave of absence required to accomplish this undertaking.

LUCILE F. FARGO
Berkeley, California

January, 1947

Acknowledgments

The Publishers are indebted to the following for the illustrations which are used in the present edition of *Library in the School*: Chicago Board of Education; Cleveland Public Library; Gaylord Brothers; Illinois State Library; Massachusetts Board of Education; St. Louis Board of Education; Tennessee Department of Education; the Tennessee Valley Authority; the Public Schools of Nashville, Tennessee; the Newark, New Jersey, Board of Education; and Library Bureau, Remington Rand Inc.

Pictures were furnished also by the Fulton County School Libraries, Fulton County, Georgia; Hamilton County Libraries, Chattanooga, Tennessee; Houston Public Schools, Houston, Texas; and Yonkers Public Schools, Yonkers, New York.

The following schools are represented in the pictures included in text: Central Junior School, Quincy, Massachusetts; Elgin High School, Elgin, Illinois; Burns Junior High School, Hartford, Connecticut; Pennine School, Rhea County, Tennessee; College Park High School Library, College Park, Georgia; Waco High School, Waco, Texas; Glenn School, Nashville, Tennessee; Steele School, Denver, Colorado; Scruggs School, St. Louis, Missouri; West Technical High School, Cleveland, Ohio; South Side High School, Newark, New Jersey; Cincinnati Central School, Cincinnati, New York; Bryan Hill School, St. Louis, Missouri; Austin High School, Austin, Minnesota; Bass School, Chicago, Illinois; East High School, Denver, Colorado; Lookout Mountain Elementary School Library, Chattanooga, Tennessee; and Dewey School, St. Louis, Missouri.

Besides the pictures accepted for inclusion in the present text, grateful acknowledgment is made of all pictures which were generously submitted to the publishers.

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I

Introductory

Previews of the Library in Action

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| 1. <i>Ruraltown Consolidated School library</i> | 1. <i>Location</i> |
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I. THREE PICTURES

1. **Ruraltown Consolidated School library.** Two buildings stand on spacious grounds just beyond Main Street: the new consolidated high school and the old elementary school. It is mid-morning and pupils from the neighboring countryside have long since clambered from busses to join town comrades in classroom, study room, kitchen, shop, and library. Just now thirty fourth graders are crossing the school yard from the elementary building for a scheduled library hour.

Shepherded by a teacher, they enter the high school building and slip into the alcove-like section of the library reserved for younger groups so quietly that their coming causes scarcely a ripple among the older pupils in the main reading room busily looking up references or just reading for fun.

While the elementary group explore shelves with their teacher, Superintendent Black enters with the county librarian. Once inside, both visitors glance approvingly at the spacious but cozy quarters they so recently planned together. Superintendent Black likes not only the brightness of the reading room with its pictures and books and pot of gay flowers on the window ledge, but also the activities he sees. To him it is the epitome of what is desirable in a twentieth-century school: guided learning characterized by a large measure of freedom and self-direction.

The county librarian likes it too. She notes the order and attractiveness of the books, the newer ones, shining with the shellac that protects their covers from the soil of eager hands, all fresh from the cataloging and processing room of the county library.

Just back of the desk she spots three rows of painted wooden pamphlet boxes. They must be the ones the boys in the shop have been making. Good! Perhaps having made the containers the boys will look inside when they want a brief something on farm mechanics or installment buying.

Over by the history shelves she spys a new bulletin board fitted into the vacant space below a ventilating outlet. The boys must have made that too. What's on it? The county librarian crosses the room to see. Of all things! Miss Thompson's antiquated "term list"! It would be that, snuggling drably beside the nosegay of bright book jackets and a snappy poster, "The Juniors Recommend." But never mind. Miss Thompson is an excellent teacher in her sternly rigid way, and her better pupils do a lot of solid reading. If the poor ones are out of luck, perhaps the library can do something for them. Harriet Marble thinks so.

Where is Harriet? To find out, the county librarian steps to the circulation desk where Superintendent Black stands watching the businesslike tenth grader who is presiding there.

"Miss Marble? Our librarian? Why—oh yes! She's in the biology lab telling the class about pamphlets and government publications on fish ponds. Some of the kids are going to experiment with fish-farming." The tenth grader pauses, "I'm sure Miss Marble will be right back. She likes to be here when the fourth graders have their library period; and she's due to tell them a story before they leave."

"Well, then," Superintendent Black smiles at this very efficient volunteer assistant and turns to the county librarian, "Suppose you just look around or glance over a few shoulders to see what's doing. I'd like to stay too, but—"

"I almost forgot," interrupts the county librarian. "Before you leave, please send one of the boys out to my car to bring in the package lying on the front seat. I've gone fishing, too, since Harriet Marble told me about this new activity and I've brought some material the school library is too young to have accumulated—colored plates and a fine old edition of *The Compleat Angler*. Also Henry Van Dyke's *Fisherman's Luck*. Literature and fishing still go together, don't they?"

As Superintendent Black and one of the senior boys leave, Harriet Marble

comes in and she and her visitor go into a huddle. Can more books be provided for the classroom libraries in the adjoining elementary school? Or could the same result be obtained by planning, through the county school supervisors, to stagger literature and social science units throughout the county so that not every teacher will ask for the same books at the same time?

Later the county librarian is invited to tell the fourth graders their story. She is an accomplished teller of tales and it is good for the children to become acquainted with her and to look forward to her coming on the bookmobile during the months when school is not in session. As the children sit wide-eyed, we slip away—regretfully, for we'd like to see what happens next in this busy center of educational activity.

2. **Big City Technical High School library.** “Tech High” is a huge institution equipped with generous laboratories, shops, and mechanical devices of every description. What can a library be doing in the midst of all these belts and screws, batteries and fuse boxes, drafting tables, test tubes, and mathematical formulas?

In the big reading room we begin to find out, though a follow-up visit to laboratories and shops would be required to get the full picture. For in this school, library books literally become tools. Propped open on work benches they provide working drawings for the construction of models, or display diagrams of a gas engine for pupils repairing an automobile. Some such books never leave the shop when, after being recorded in the library, they arrive to do duty where their presence counts most. Meantime other volumes come and go as the occasion demands—practical books that tell what to do and how to do it.

But the central reading room alone provides convincing proof that Big City Technical High School stands for the “why’s” in education as well as the “how’s” and is fully aware of the social and aesthetic demands of a machine age and of a machine-centered community. Fiction and travel are conspicuously present on the shelves, as are biography and history, art, music, drama, essays and verse—all representative of those finer aspects of mind, spirit, and imagination which the young person due to spend future working hours in shop or factory needs to become acquainted with in school if living is to be for him something better than a mechanical grind.

Big City Technical High School, it appears, is also tremendously interested in the development of the inquiring mind. Our entrance into the reading room parallels that of a class involved in a unit on aero-

dynamics. Encouraged and directed by the instructor who has come with them, pupils set about exploring current scientific literature by way of *The Readers' Guide* and *The Industrial Arts Index*. Some of the magazine articles identified through these indexes are not available in the school but must be sought in the technology department of the public library. Too bad? "Not at all," remarks the instructor. "No one library can ever contain all that the serious student of science needs. Certainly not the school library. Quite as important as finding precisely what these boys and girls want is putting over the idea that the resources of the public library are, and always will be, theirs for the asking. I'll just send a note by one of these kids to Smith in the technology room there. He'll look after them."

Examining the magazine rack and glancing over shoulders we discover that while this library has an excellent representation of scientific periodicals there are plenty of others too. What about it, we ask one of the several professional librarians; is there a reading problem in this school? Yes—and no, comes the reply. At one extreme are the mechanical geniuses—brilliant youths so absorbed in their own particular lines of scientific literature that it takes a world of tact, quick thinking, and acquaintance with the products of the printing press to steer these budding scientists into wider fields. The Reader's Club helps. Every member must read and "sell" to the club at least one book outside his main field of interest. "My recommendations aren't in it," adds our informant, laughing, "with books that are sold through the enthusiasm of a classmate."

How about the reluctant or retarded reader? Our librarian is ready for that one too. "By hook and by crook the teachers try to discover in the pupil an absorbing interest of some sort and we start from there, working together. See that red-head yonder? He's been adopted by a well-to-do aunt with whom he wants to make good. But his manners, long neglected, plus untidiness, have nearly been his undoing. The school counselor found that out; and also that he hated to read. Last week we started him on *Smarter and Smoother* and he's still going strong, right through the shelves on etiquette and home living for boys. I have a biography or two up my sleeve when the time comes," she adds. "It will help him to find out that other boys have felt embarrassed and awkward too."

A gong interrupts and in an instant the room is on its feet hurrying to leave by the exit near the circulation desk as the fifth period mob crowds in at the main entrance, hands extended for small yellow slips passed out by a boy wearing a "Library Club" armband.

"Why the yellow slips?" we query.

"Sorry—just a minute." When the ticket dispenser has a moment of leisure he explains. "It's like this. Any guy with a free period can come to the library, but there isn't always room. When I've given out all my slips it means there aren't any more seats and the doors are closed. I'll go around and collect the slips after they've been signed, and take them back to the study halls so the teachers will know where the kids are."

Noise, movement, crowds about the card catalog, questions pursuing the library staff—"Where's" and "What's" and, ever recurring, "How can I find?". But it is the noise and movement incidental to purposeful activity, and the signs all point to a period of reading and studious research when each has found what he wants or is well launched in personal exploration. In justice to the busy staff, we slip out. Our initial query about what a library can do in a technical school has been answered.

3. University High School library. University High School has an enrollment of five hundred and a well-rounded program of secondary education. The school also serves as a training center for cadet teachers enrolled in the school of education of the state university.

The library suite includes several rooms. The reading room displays a temporary frieze of student art work. The teachers' room with its lending library of current books, professional and otherwise, invites the instructor to spend free periods there; two conference rooms provide space for pupil-groups meeting for committee or project work. There is a librarian's workroom, small in size but adequately supplied with cupboard space in addition to work table and sink, and a lecture room which is also an audio-visual center. Recently, we learn, there has been talk of turning one of the conference rooms into a listening room equipped with turntables and other sound apparatus.

In the reading room the head librarian is struggling with a book order in intervals free from the demands of the pupils in attendance. Without interrupting, we stroll around. There is movement in the room, and the sound of quiet voices, like the hum of bees intent upon work. Over in a corner, three girls are sketching costumes from a row of color plates propped up on the table before them. The costumes are to be worn by the dancers in the coming Mexican *fiesta*. Two boys jack-knifed over a recent *Science News Letter* are reading an article on television referred to by an instructor. In the workroom members of the "library squad" are pasting and stamping a batch of new books.

Returning to the desk, we listen to a conference between the librarian and a social science instructor who is full of a new idea. How would it do, he wants to know, to introduce a library survey into the twelfth-grade unit on "Cultural Agencies in Our Community"?

"Great!" says the librarian. "I'll get some books that indicate the types of service libraries carry on. Then I'll call the public library to tell them what's on foot and see what they have that could be turned over to a committee." She pulls two or three volumes from a nearby shelf and starts for the workroom telephone. But a worried ninth grader interrupts her progress. "Cyrus the Great—you remember about my Persian, don't you?—is losing his fur. Do you know where that pet book is that I had last month—the one you showed me?"

The pet book produced, the librarian again starts phoneward, but is waylaid by the president of the student council. "Do you think our participation in library management might work better if we set up a civil service exam for candidates for desk jobs—have them give references and indicate how they are coming along with grades, and all that?"

The librarian says it sounds like a good idea, but may she think it over?

"Sure." But her interlocutor hasn't finished. He is earnestly explaining another bright idea when the period bell interrupts. It sends the president of the student council, the social science teacher waiting at the desk, and everyone else save the head librarian scurrying for the exit. As an assistant steps quickly about giving last minute aid to stragglers and answering belated questions, the head librarian finally reaches the workroom. But there is no use trying to telephone just now—too much noise, she tells us as we follow. Anyway, she must get the cadet teachers started first. In the next period they are coming to compile bibliographies for a personal regimen unit they are about to teach, and she must take time to introduce them to sources before they go to work. Training them in library use is so very important,—these teachers of the future!

There is more in this library worth observing—much more. But time presses. As a new student group troops into the reading room we slip into a convenient hallway and call it a day.

II. THE IDEAL SCHOOL LIBRARY

1. **Location.** Certain facts stand out inescapably in the situations outlined. First, library service is being given *within the school*, right where pupils are, and at the time when learning situations require it. Some phases

of organizational work may have stemmed from agencies outside as where the county public library is responsible for ordering, cataloging, and processing library materials. But whatever the arrangements for carrying on technical and mechanical processes, and for support, control and supervision, it is evident that fully integrated work occurs only when an excellent assortment of books and related materials of learning is housed within school walls and when pupils, librarians and teachers mingle daily and hourly in educational activities.

2. Atmosphere. The best school library is homelike and informal. By some, its atmosphere has been likened to that of the family hearth. Others have seen the library as the warmly beating heart of the school from which flows to pupils and teachers the red blood of inspiration and discovery. Still others have preferred to call the school library a laboratory, a workshop, or a materials center. Actually, the school library is all of these. It has books, organization, staff, and equipment for work. It is a unit of the school characterized by warmth and interest. In it is a group of learners at work in a highly social atmosphere: a pupil committee engaged in implementing a future radio program; a boy on a window bench relaxed in all the awkwardness of adolescent youth, completely lost in a tale of stratosphere flight; a girl bent over a periodical absorbing a decorative scheme for the attic bedroom at home; a teacher and a librarian in earnest conference concerning a backward reader.

To be sure, there is routine. The day is sliced into equally spaced sections by the "period bell." Attendance is necessarily checked. But the library machinery does not clank. There is little assigning of seats, no monotonous roll call. The place is alive—with a busy hum of industry, once heard never to be mistaken for aimless mischief or planned disorder.

3. Adjustments. The ideal school library shows careful adjustment of service to type of institution and to pupil age level: to public and private schools; to elementary, junior and senior high schools. In a school conducting evening sessions, library hours and service are arranged to suit the groups in attendance; in a college preparatory school, the humanities bulk large in the book collection and activities; in a technical school, scientific and industrial literature is duly emphasized. In a private boarding school, small collections of readable books function as house libraries; in an elementary school, reading and more reading is the main emphasis, with plenty of attention to remedial work and to the use of books as tools.

There is adjustment to physical conditions. In the ideal school library,

attendance is voluntary. Since under the crowded conditions existing in many school buildings the end result of complete freedom of attendance may be pre-emption of library privileges by those most fleet of foot, arrangements are made for equalizing and directing attendance, such as the distribution in study hall or home room of slips equal in number to the seating capacity of the library reading room.

The library is adjusted to school organization. If boys and girls pass from one classroom or activity center to another in fixed groups, the library arranges for group attendance and activities—for so-called “library hours” or “free reading” periods. If “supervised study” is the educational *modus operandi* in a junior or senior high school, collections of reading materials move freely from library to classroom; where the daily program provides pupils with one or more free periods, fewer books go to the classroom and more pupils come to the library. Whatever the plan of organization, the librarian studies it as an opportunity for service or as a challenge to ingenuity in fitting established library procedures into unusual situations.

Adjustments on the business side are in line with the practice of the school office. The ordering of books is an example. Legal restrictions and school accounting practice may require an annual consolidated order, or make purchasing through a designated agency necessary.

Adjustments to instructional methods are vital. The librarian participates in the making of course syllabi implemented with carefully compiled bibliographies guiding pupils to required reading or to sources useful in the consummation of projects. Pupils coming to the library with individual assignments are guided in their choice of reading or reference materials but are encouraged to work as far as possible on their own. All along the line, librarians and teachers do intimate teamwork.

Library practice conforms to educational aims, which are well understood by the librarian who follows their changing implications and emphasis through faculty gatherings and educational literature.

4. **Staff.** The ideal school library is manned by expert personnel capable of a wide range of duties, from finding a book for a reluctant reader to providing bibliographical service for a faculty committee engaged in curriculum revision. The staff is well versed in the psychology of boys and girls and in the skillful management of varying age groups; it has a keen understanding of the problems of teachers and is constantly ready to engage in teamwork with them. It has that intimate acquaintance with the literature of youth which is a “must” for all who would guide the

reading of boys and girls, and wide knowledge of sources of information. It is competent to carry on the technical processes essential to library organization and cooperates intelligently with library agencies outside the school.

III. A GLANCE AHEAD

From the foregoing pictures and analysis it should be obvious that the business of running a school library is not simple and that it requires wide knowledge and ability in the fields of education and librarianship. But for the individual who likes boys and girls it is highly challenging, full of opportunity for initiative and exploratory work as well as for helpful service and inspiring contacts with youth and the teachers of youth.

The aim of this book is to help the prospective school librarian make good in the varied areas suggested by the preview.

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The day's work as reported by a number of elementary school libraries.

SCRIPTURE, ELIZABETH. "The School Library." In National Commission on Cooperative Curriculum Planning. *The Subject Fields in General Education*. Appleton-Century, 1944, p.205-26.

The contributions of the organized library to the modern educational program admirably summarized.

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To supplement the above list, some students will undoubtedly enjoy perusing one or more of the booklets in the "Experimenting Together" series published by the American Library Association. Each deals with library activity in a special field. Those published to date are:

BOHMAN, E. L., and DILLON, JOSEPHINE. The Librarian and the Teacher of Music. 1942.

HELLER, F. M., and LABRANT, L. L. The Librarian and the Teacher of English. 1938.

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SIEBENS, C. R., and BARTLETT, W. L. The Librarian and the Teacher of Science. 1942.

Educational Patterns and Library Aims

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|-----------------------------------|--|
| I. The Aims of Education | 3. The scientific approach and creative thinking |
| 1. Immediate aims | 4. Activities |
| 2. Ultimate goals | 5. Attention to the individual |
| II. The School Curriculum | 6. Audio-visual learning |
| III. Studying Aims and Curriculum | 7. Guided learning |
| IV. Units of School Organization | 8. Old vs. new |
| V. Teaching Methods | VI. Aims of the School Library |
| 1. Classroom instruction | VII. Library Standards |
| 2. Learning through experience | VIII. Aims and Standards Unrealized |
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I. THE AIMS OF EDUCATION

1. **Immediate aims.** Probably no two faculty groups would express the purposes of education in precisely the same way, one reason being that such groups tend to think of aims in terms of immediate goals for their particular school or type of school. This is not undesirable. The Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards insists that in the application of its *Evaluative Criteria*¹ the program of each school is to be evaluated in the light of its special aims as its faculty sees them: the rural high school in terms of its effort to meet the needs of a rural community; the trade school on the basis of its vocational goal, and so on. For the librarian, full acquaintance with the goals towards which her particular school is aiming is imperative.

2. **Ultimate goals.** These too must be recognized. They are stated in two volumes sponsored by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School

¹ Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards. *Evaluative Criteria*. 1940 ed. The Study, 1940, p.6.

Administrators: *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy, and Education for All American Youth.*²

The emphasis is upon "democracy" and "all." Whatever the goals, they are to be determined within the framework of a democratic society and are to be inclusive enough to comprehend every young person, talented, average, or below average; those who will work with their hands cultivating the land or manipulating machinery as well as those who will sit at desks directing the affairs of commerce or who will devote their time to research, experiment or social betterment.

The Commission groups the basic concerns of general education in four categories; self-realization, human relationships, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility.

In the area of self-realization, the pupil must develop an inquiring mind, ability to speak, read, and write the mother tongue efficiently and to solve the mathematical problems occurring in everyday life. He must also learn to listen and observe accurately, to understand the basic facts concerning his own health and that of the public, and how to conserve each. He is to be prepared for normal participation in and enjoyment of sports and pastimes. He is to develop mental resources for hours of leisure, to acquire appreciation of beauty, and to become capable of giving responsible direction to his own life.

In the category of human relationships the pupil learns "to place human welfare at the very summit of his scale of values" and to associate with others in a friendly, cooperative, and courteous spirit. In pursuit of these ends the activities of the school are designed to encourage working together rather than in competition. The pupil is guided to an understanding of the family as a social institution, helped to make happy and constructive adjustments within his own family circle. The art and the science of home-making is a goal for boys as well as girls, both of whom are to look forward to marriage with understanding and appreciation of its biological, economic and social aspects. The amenities of social behavior are emphasized, and through the school itself the pupil is offered valuable experience in sincere and varied social life.

Economic efficiency as a goal relates to "activities having to do with goods and services." It includes vocational guidance, consumer education,

² Educational Policies Commission. *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*. N.E.A., 1938.

——— *Education for All American Youth*. N.E.A., 1944.

and personal economics. Work opportunities in or through the school are provided as in the library where groups of pupils participate in desk work and the care of library materials, being held to conscientious and efficient performance as a means of cultivating worthy attitudes towards future jobs. Through instruction and projects and field trips the school encourages better buying and the development of high standards for the guidance of personal expenditures.

In the area of civic responsibility, sensitiveness to the disparities of human circumstances is cultivated and the pupil is encouraged to participate actively in the correction of unsatisfactory conditions. Tolerance of the opinions of others is stressed, as is also the development of critical judgment as in the case of propaganda. Wide reading pro and con is encouraged. The curriculum provides for constructive consideration of the citizen's responsibility toward the world community as well as toward the government and laws of his own country. Economic and social literacy are definite goals; not only acquaintance with basic economic theory, but knowledge of current economic and social developments such as is to be had through reading periodicals and current books. School life is so organized as to offer rich experience in school citizenship.

No matter what the field of study, the learner is to be of first consequence rather than a rigid body of knowledge. He is an individual to be guided in the acquisition of the skills, information and attitudes that will help him to live most completely and effectively in the environment where his lot is cast.

II. THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM

The curriculum is the instrument by means of which the aims of education are realized in the school. Like those aims, it deserves the attention of the librarian.

First, says the modern educator, the curriculum should not be thought of as a "series of subjects each having a well-defined content" but rather as a series of lifelike learning experiences following the flow of child development and directed by intelligent thinking. It must be "functional," organized around "areas of living" or "themes" of importance to the learner at various stages of his development. For convenience in handling, these areas of living are further subdivided into "centers of interest" which vary according to student groups, locality and other pertinent factors. Finally, the process of subdivision comes down to "units of learning" (or

Administrators: *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy, and Education for All American Youth.*²

The emphasis is upon "democracy" and "all." Whatever the goals, they are to be determined within the framework of a democratic society and are to be inclusive enough to comprehend every young person, talented, average, or below average; those who will work with their hands cultivating the land or manipulating machinery as well as those who will sit at desks directing the affairs of commerce or who will devote their time to research, experiment or social betterment.

The Commission groups the basic concerns of general education in four categories; self-realization, human relationships, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility.

In the area of self-realization, the pupil must develop an inquiring mind, ability to speak, read, and write the mother tongue efficiently and to solve the mathematical problems occurring in everyday life. He must also learn to listen and observe accurately, to understand the basic facts concerning his own health and that of the public, and how to conserve each. He is to be prepared for normal participation in and enjoyment of sports and pastimes. He is to develop mental resources for hours of leisure, to acquire appreciation of beauty, and to become capable of giving responsible direction to his own life.

In the category of human relationships the pupil learns "to place human welfare at the very summit of his scale of values" and to associate with others in a friendly, cooperative, and courteous spirit. In pursuit of these ends the activities of the school are designed to encourage working together rather than in competition. The pupil is guided to an understanding of the family as a social institution, helped to make happy and constructive adjustments within his own family circle. The art and the science of home-making is a goal for boys as well as girls, both of whom are to look forward to marriage with understanding and appreciation of its biological, economic and social aspects. The amenities of social behavior are emphasized, and through the school itself the pupil is offered valuable experience in sincere and varied social life.

Economic efficiency as a goal relates to "activities having to do with goods and services." It includes vocational guidance, consumer education,

² Educational Policies Commission. *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*. N.E.A., 1938.

——— *Education for All American Youth*. N.E.A., 1944.

and personal economics. Work opportunities in or through the school are provided as in the library where groups of pupils participate in desk work and the care of library materials, being held to conscientious and efficient performance as a means of cultivating worthy attitudes towards future jobs. Through instruction and projects and field trips the school encourages better buying and the development of high standards for the guidance of personal expenditures.

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of study) in the development of which occur "activities" and "projects."³

Learning is, of course, to be individualized. But, since by rather general consent certain areas of knowledge and certain skills are basic for all learners, the educator provides for a "core curriculum" which may be defined most simply as that portion of school experience which is common to all learners. In the secondary school the core curriculum tends to include social studies, language arts, general science, and some mathematics, the last depending upon how well basic mathematics has been covered in preceding grades. Core subjects are required of all; but as the maturing pupil advances from grade to grade he is allowed increasing opportunity to broaden and cultivate special talents and to follow special cultural or vocational interests through his choice of activities, electives, and reading.

III. STUDYING AIMS AND CURRICULUM

Presumably the prospective school librarian has become more or less familiar with the aims of general education and with the school curriculum through courses in education pursued prior to entering the library school. Or such courses may be pursued concurrently with those in library science.

* "Areas of living" have been defined as "social functions about which the activities of individuals and the plans and problems of the group tend to cluster"; or, more simply, as "a group of related life activities which are convenient in curriculum planning"; for example, Living in the Home, Production, Communication. As subheads under such "areas," there appear "centers of interest" represented by topics such as Improving the Home, the Effects of Production Upon Our Living, Mechanical Means of Communication.

Broadly speaking, a unit of learning (also spoken of as a "unit of work" or "unit of experience") appears to be a complete and coherent learning experience having a purpose that is meaningful to the pupil, accepted as his own, and closely related to a life situation. In a curriculum composed of units based upon real and meaningful situations, basic skills such as reading, writing, and mathematical computation are not overlooked but are introduced as needed instead of being mastered in isolation. In other words, they are learned functionally. (Summarized from National Education Association Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction and The Society for Curriculum Study. *The Changing Curriculum*. Appleton-Century, 1937, p.76-111.)

An "activity" may be thought of as a pupil enterprise involving a large measure of pupil responsibility and characterized by creative self-activity. The teacher functions chiefly as guide. Usually, though not always, the activity is a group enterprise and emphasizes learning through experience.

Some educators are inclined to distinguish carefully between "activities" and "projects," suggesting that the latter are initiated and directed by the teacher to enforce subject matter or to provide added experience in or comprehension of skills and processes. This distinction appears, however, to be breaking down, perhaps because of the present tendency to regard education as a cooperative enterprise throughout in which pupils and teachers carry on teamwork without too much regard for who initiates what. Often, the terms "activity" and "project" are used synonymously.

But it is often necessary to brush up. For this purpose, as well as to aid individuals entering the field of school librarianship from a library rather than a school background, outstanding publications useful for orientation in the educational field are listed in the bibliography at the end of this chapter. The school librarian should know them.

IV. UNITS OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

The first twelve years of public education in the United States follow in many localities a pattern of organization known as the 8—4 plan, i.e., the elementary school program covers eight years; the secondary, four. In communities where there is a junior high school, 6—3—3 is the educational formula: six years for elementary education, three each for the junior and the senior high school. As a variation of 6—3—3 there is 6—6, for those schools which choose to combine the high school years in one continuous pattern.

Closely paralleling these new time divisions in general education there has developed the junior college—two years of post-senior high school study considered either as an extension of high school learning or as the beginning of college.

Part-time education as exemplified in evening schools and work-study programs represents another aspect of the educational pattern.

For the librarian entering upon professional training, and later when considering a school position, these variations of educational pattern are important. Under the 6—3—3 plan, junior and senior high school libraries are usually separate entities, and elementary libraries serve six grades only. Under the more widely prevalent 8—4 arrangement the elementary library serves eight grades, the high school library four. In smaller communities, the high school library may become a center of organization and supervision for all grade school libraries if, indeed, it does not serve elementary pupils directly. In larger school systems, high school libraries serve evening and continuation schools. Occasionally, one library serves both high school and junior college. Such being the facts, the basic preparation of the school librarian cannot be narrowly limited. Although the library school student plans to become a secondary school librarian, she still needs an introduction to the literature and reading interests of childhood, and should be prepared to adjust administration and activities according to the grades served.

Grouping of pupils within class or grade according to learning capacity as ascertained by careful testing is another matter of consequence to the librarian. A class arriving in the library may be a high or a low intelligence group, or may be wholly composed of retarded readers. As in the classroom, activities must be adjusted to the capabilities of the group.

V. TEACHING METHODS

1. **Classroom instruction.** The librarian entering the school as a co-worker with the instructional staff must be familiar with new methods of teaching. The recitation period may have become a "working period" characterized by committee activity, individual and small group enterprises, reports, construction projects, and group discussion. To allow for such activities periods are longer and fewer than formerly when each was devoted to a separate subject with emphasis upon drill and mastery of assignments.

There is more freedom and less attention to textbooks. In place of a text there may be a comprehensive syllabus made up of units of work replete with suggestions for individual and group activity and implemented with generous bibliographies leading to materials found on the library shelves, in its audio-visual collection, or its pamphlet and magazine files. On visits to classrooms, and the librarian should visit them frequently, she is aware of a highly developed social atmosphere—pupils working together in groups under the guidance of the teacher, dramatizations being planned, forum discussions being led by pupil chairmen, collections of books and pamphlets and visual aids lent by the library conspicuously in evidence as laboratory materials.

2. **Learning through experience.** In some instances pupils learn to participate in the shaping of the curriculum. Throughout, the school is organized to provide a maximum of experience in democratic processes and democratic living:

Students at Farmville *learn how to share in setting up the purposes, policies, and plans* for the activities in which they engage. The accent here is on the words "learn how." Throughout the school, activities are planned jointly by teachers and students, always with a view to employing the most effective planning methods Students and teachers sit together on the editorial board of the school newspaper and on the committees for assemblies and athletics In brief, all the important policy and action groups in the school are composed of teachers and students working together in a relation of part-



The library opens unlimited horizons for rural and urban children

Books help to solve personal problems





Books are tools in the school shops and laboratories



nership; and each group serves as a laboratory in the ways of democracy through practice.⁴

As noted earlier, work experience—the actual holding of a job—while yet in school, is being encouraged. Students are supervised and counseled by qualified members of the faculty as well as by foremen and office managers in places of employment, and the library participates by providing books useful on the job. It also participates by encouraging pupils to become assistants in the school library itself.

Experience may be vicarious. Since instruction is increasingly concerned with matters of personal import to boys and girls, all sorts of printed materials chosen from the individual point of view may be used in unexpected ways. In social living classes, discussion of stories and biographies helps pupils meet difficult problems of their own. Reading books of travel or scientific exploration, they participate vicariously in experiences that are significant and broadening.

3. The scientific approach and creative thinking. The methods of science are increasingly carried over into all phases of study: enough original investigation is encouraged in home economics, public health, local civic problems, consumer education, and so on to provide experience in and teach the value of research in every aspect of living.

Creative thinking is emphasized as the normal follow-up of investigation. When, guided by the instructor, the pupil has arrived at the facts, he does not stop there. He has ascertained, let us say, that 10 per cent of the trees on Shadyside Avenue are definitely dead and 40 per cent more are on the way to dissolution. Why are they dying? Is it because of the prevalence of smoke, or of fumes from the new chemical plant? What effects will the death of the trees be likely to have on the neighborhood as a residential section? Will it become a “blighted area”? What can be done about it? The library helps him answer these questions.

4. Activities. All through the school the librarian finds the educational “activity” in progress. It may be an all-inclusive school activity organized around a theme or center of interest broad enough to engage the attention of the entire student body and to extend throughout the year. It may be a class, group, or individual activity. It cuts across varied areas of learning with integrating effect, as when investigation of the tree situation on

⁴ Educational Policies Commission. *Education for All American Youth*. N.E.A., 1944, p.80.

Shadyside Avenue involves consideration of scientific facts, civic responsibility and city planning.

The literature of the activity is rich and stimulating and should be well known to the librarian, not only because the library is almost certain to be involved in every such enterprise but because it should initiate many of its own.⁵

5. Attention to the individual. Methods used in individualizing instruction are too varied for enumeration, but the following examples serve to show how teachers use the library in adjusting work to individual capacity.

While slower learners in a group working in the classroom under some plan of directed study receive the extra explanation and drill they require, their quicker classmates are dismissed to the library to engage as individuals or small groups in advanced learning or special projects.

Instruction in the use of the library is sometimes so planned as to require more accomplishment on the part of the superior pupil than on that of his less gifted classmate. A textbook⁶ or syllabus is used in which each unit of instruction is divided into lesser units representing an ascending scale of accomplishment and each pupil is assigned, or enters into a contract with his instructor to cover as many sections as his known ability seems to indicate.

The titles included in reading lists are sufficiently numerous and varied to allow for wide divergencies in taste and interest, and "free reading" periods in the library are provided during which pupils of any or all grades browse at will and pursue as individuals such avenues of reading as have personal appeal.

6. Audio-visual learning. In no field has there recently been so great an advance as in audio-visual instruction. Roots, stem, and leaves unfold on a screen in the biology classroom instead of in the traditional biology window garden. In the machine shop the class learns from the screen how the engine in the family car operates. A freshman group in process of orientation is taught by way of a movie how to secure a library pass, how to use the card catalog to locate a book on the shelves, and how to have it charged when found. Classes in music appreciation listen to records or participate in programs broadcast from a central station.

7. Guided learning. The function of the modern teacher is increasingly

⁵ Fargo, L. F. *Activity Book for School Libraries*. A.L.A., 1938.

_____ *Activity Book Number Two*. A.L.A., 1945.

⁶ *Find It Yourself*, a series of library instruction units by Elizabeth Scripture and Margaret R. Greer (Wilson, 1943) is a text designed to be used in this way.

that of guiding, directing and organizing. Drill has not been thrown overboard, nor necessary pressure. But the good teacher leads rather than goads. Constant effort is made to relate instruction to goals that have a bearing on successful living and are recognized as desirable by the pupils themselves.

All this is important for the librarian. Like the classroom instructor, she too must know how to stimulate, guide and direct and so achieve the cooperation of pupils in such aspects of learning as fall within her sphere.

8. **Old vs. new.** As the report of the Educational Policies Commission freely admits, not every school is following the patterns indicated in the last few pages, and certainly not every teacher. In education as elsewhere changes in pattern and method tend to come gradually as alert teachers experiment with new ideas and equally alert principals quietly inaugurate changes that are steps in an evolutionary process. This being the case, it is not for the librarian to exhibit a critical or defeatist attitude when educational procedures in her school fail to measure up immediately and thus failing make it impossible for the library to function at its best. A safer and in the end more successful attitude is that of helpfulness and cooperation. If the librarian enters wholeheartedly into whatever program the school is currently carrying, there will in all probability be plenty of opportunity as time goes on to help new educational ideas germinate and bear fruit. More than many realize, school administrators look to the library for this kind of aid.

VI. AIMS OF THE SCHOOL LIBRARY

It goes without saying that the basic aims of the library must in the last analysis be those of the school itself. But the librarian needs statements that are more specifically related to library service than the educational goals so far dealt with—objectives closely related to the daily functioning of her library.

Professional groups have from time to time formulated such objectives. Drawing upon a number of sources⁷ the aims of the school library may be stated as follows:

⁷ American Library Association Committees on Post-War Planning. *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow*. A.L.A., 1945, p.8-10.

Cecil, H. L., and Heaps, W. A. "General Aims of School Library Service." In their *School Library Service in the United States*. Wilson, 1940, p.21-35.

National Society for the Study of Education. *Forty-second Yearbook*, Pt. II: *The Library in General Education*. 1943, p.338-42. (Distributed by the Department of Education, Univ. of Chicago.)

1. To acquire books and other materials in line with the demands of the curriculum and the needs of boys and girls and to organize these materials for effective use
2. To guide pupils in their choice of books and other materials of learning desired both for personal and curricular purposes
3. To develop in pupils skill and resourcefulness in their use of books and libraries and to encourage the habit of personal investigation
4. To help pupils establish a wide range of significant interests
5. To provide aesthetic experience and develop appreciation of the arts
6. To encourage lifelong education through the use of library resources
7. To encourage social attitudes and provide experience in social and democratic living
8. To work cooperatively and constructively with instructional and administrative staffs of the school

1. *To acquire books and other materials in line with the demands of the curriculum and the needs of boys and girls and to organize these materials for effective use.* The school library is no longer made up exclusively of books. It has become a center for the collection, organization, and servicing of a great variety of educational materials including periodicals, pamphlets, and other tools of learning such as audio-visual aids. The selection of these items is a continuous cooperative enterprise carried on by the librarian with the advice and help of the instructional staff and sometimes of pupils.

Acquisition of materials once they have been selected involves wide knowledge of sources and the employment of special records and business routines. Since the professional librarian has the bibliographical knowledge and the skill required for carrying on the processes of acquisition to the advantage of the school, responsibility for such service rests heavily upon her although she works with and through the business offices of the school system and with the audio-visual department if such a division exists.

The efficiency of the library as an educational enterprise depends upon its organization. Its resources must be classified, cataloged, filed. These processes are not ends in themselves. They do not make a library any more than housekeeping routine makes a home. They are worthy goals only in so far as they increase the efficiency of service to pupils and teachers.

2. *To guide pupils in their choice of books and other materials of learning desired both for personal and curricular purposes.* These aims have probably been urged more consistently than any others. In all phases of his work the pupil now requires many books instead of one and must be

helped to make appropriate choices by both teachers and librarians. Beginning with the teaching of reading in the elementary school, the learner is introduced to a variety of children's books, particular attention being paid to his age, ability and interests. In the secondary school, varied reading resources in the library are a *sine qua non* of courses in literature, and to make each individual's program of reading a success requires constant advice and direction. The same holds true in other phases of curricular work. Carrying out projects in nature study, history, geography, civics, health, physical science, industrial training, art, or any others arising out of the curriculum, the pupil needs expert guidance in locating helpful reading and graphic materials. He also deserves, and should get, competent direction where his personal hobbies and special interests are concerned.

3. *To develop in pupils skill and resourcefulness in their use of books and libraries and to encourage the habit of personal investigation.* All along the line, the twentieth-century school emphasizes the necessity for pupil investigation and the development of skill in carrying it forward. In some fields of learning the laboratory may be the pupil's mainstay, but even the laboratory has its limitations. There comes a time when recourse must be had to the printed page. So arises the demand that pupils be taught how to employ printed tools for themselves. They must acquire skill in the use of dictionary, encyclopedia, card catalog, periodical indexes. They must learn how to use the printed parts of a book to advantage—its index, its glossary, its table of contents. They must be able to cite references correctly and to compile lists of materials in good form. As they learn to do these things effectively, they see the possibilities in personal investigation and some, at least, develop the habit of such investigation.

4. *To help pupils establish a wide range of significant interests.* The all-round personality toward which the educator hopefully looks as a result of the pupil's experiences in school is characterized by a wide range of interests. The library is in a particularly favorable position to help pupils cultivate these. Through books and magazines, exhibits, lists, and publicity it starts pupils on hobbies and intellectual pursuits and opens the way to richer living.

5. *To provide aesthetic experience and develop appreciation of the arts.* To many boys and girls the library room, beautiful architecturally, bright with books and exhibits, is in itself an aesthetic experience highly appreciated but hard to express. "The library is pretty and neat," writes Seventh

Grade, Anonymous, "and the books look nice and clean and there is mostly pretty flowers and some pictures around. The librarian is clean too."

Comfortably seated and reading at will in this happy environment, the pupil's emotional response to what is lovely in the realm of literature has a better chance of being satisfactory than under less heart-warming conditions. Then too, the books on the shelves are in physical appearance less commonplace than texts, having been chosen in editions and bindings that have eye appeal; and somewhere there is probably a small collection of special treasures to be handled reverently: a *Midsummer Night's Dream* exquisitely illustrated in color, the Gettysburg Address executed by a famous press in type of great beauty.

6. *To encourage lifelong education through the use of library resources.* Perhaps this is implicit in aims c, d, and e. Yet it needs emphasis because to a far greater extent than may be realized, adult education begins in the school library. Backed by the skill he has acquired in the use of library tools, encouraged by schoolday successes in the pursuit of knowledge through the use of these tools, and cognizant of the pleasurable and aesthetic satisfactions in reading, the pupil leaving school is all set to take his own education in hand and to pursue it by way of that "people's university," the public library.

7. *To encourage social attitudes and provide experience in social and democratic living.* A notable contribution to the pupil's social awareness is made by providing in the library itself opportunity for social and democratic living. There is no ban on group work. Rather, such work is encouraged in so far as physical conditions permit. The prevailing atmosphere is that of helpfulness, fair play, and cooperative effort. The librarian helps the pupil lost in a reference problem and the pupil helps the librarian by charging books. Discipline and attendance are democratically managed in many libraries by student officers. Library squads or committees assume responsibility for varied phases of library activity and in so doing help to demonstrate in the school the qualities of the good citizen.

8. *To work cooperatively and constructively with the instructional and administrative staffs of the school.* Cooperation in such matters as the selection and acquisition of books and reading guidance has already been suggested. But such cooperation is not enough. The librarian in a well-managed school participates in the planning and construction of the school program, i.e., she attends and takes part in faculty meetings, serves on curriculum committees, and engages as actively in the discussion and

formulation of social and administrative measures as any other wide-awake member of the educational group with whom she is associated.

VII. LIBRARY STANDARDS

To bring about the fulfillment of school library objectives, standards have been set up by state departments of education, educational accrediting agencies, and library organizations, or by these agencies working co-operatively.

The earliest standards promulgated in 1920 and entitled *Standard Library Organization and Equipment for Secondary Schools*, were also known as the "Certain" standards from the name of the chairman of the committee responsible for their statement.⁸ They had been approved by the Committee on Education of the American Library Association after having been discussed by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and adopted both by that association and by the Secondary Education Section of the National Education Association.

In 1925, there appeared a companion statement, *Elementary School Library Standards*.⁹

Both sets of standards were specific and quantitative. For schools in various enrollment brackets, requirements were definitely laid down covering the number of books on the shelves, seating capacity, technical organization, the budgetary allowance, and the preparation of the librarian in terms of credit hours in library science. Some attention was paid to the educational services and activities of the library, but not much, these being more or less taken for granted. The standards for secondary schools were widely copied by state departments of education and regional accrediting agencies. Where judiciously interpreted and rigorously enforced, they helped amazingly in raising the level of school library support, organization and service. So did their wide acceptance as goals by schools not necessarily ruled by their provisions. In the elementary school, neither the Certain standards nor any others of comparable nature were widely adopted. In 1942, Spain could still report¹⁰ that only ten states had

⁸ National Education Association Committee on Library Organization and Equipment; C. C. Certain, Chairman. *Standard Library Organization and Equipment for Secondary Schools*. . . A.L.A., 1920.

⁹ National Education Association and American Library Association Joint Committee; C. C. Certain, Chairman. *Elementary School Library Standards*. A.L.A., 1925.

¹⁰ Spain, F. L. "The Application of School-Library Standards." In *National Society for the Study of Education. Forty-second Yearbook, Pt. II: The Library in General Education*. 1943, p.284. (Distributed by the Department of Education, Univ. of Chicago.)

formulated definite library standards for elementary schools, while sixteen others contented themselves with "book requirements, certification credentials for librarians, or sections of score cards."

When, a decade or so after the appearance of the Certain standards, overemphasis on quantitative measurements in all areas of education came under severe criticism, library standards for the secondary school were re-stated along with those for the school in its entirety. In the evaluative criteria set up by the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards attention was focused on the services of the library and the integration of its activities with all phases of the educational program of the individual school. Wherever these criteria were intelligently applied by evaluating committees, the school library inevitably stood out—either as one of the most effective educational agencies in the school or as a department limping along to the detriment of all others.

The year 1945 witnessed the issuance of postwar library standards applicable both to elementary and to secondary schools. In their *School Libraries Today and Tomorrow*, the American Library Association's Committees on Post-War Planning enunciated criteria for the evaluation of the school library which combine convenient quantitative measuring sticks stated in tabular form with illuminating criteria for the evaluation of library service in its educational aspects. More attention is paid than in the past to the necessity for local adjustments and to the possibilities in cooperative plans and centralized administration. Small schools with limited financial resources are advised to seek the goals set by the standards through contracts for service by public libraries or through pooling arrangements; the preparation of the school librarian in these same small schools is adjusted to the conditions under which she works.

Already these standards have borne fruit in significant ways, one being the adoption by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of similar standards to be put into effect shortly.¹¹ They will undoubtedly bear similar fruit in other quarters, especially in enabling the local school to measure the efficiency of its own library. In the present text they will frequently be referred to as the most authoritative current pronouncements on varied aspects of school library service.

¹¹ Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. *Standards for High School Libraries . . . Effective as of the Beginning of the School Year 1948-49*. The Association, n.d. (Mimeographed).

VIII. AIMS AND STANDARDS UNREALIZED

It will be obvious to the thoughtful that both aims and standards represent ideals to which many schools have not yet attained. For the inexperienced school librarian, this is both a hazard and a challenge. A hazard in that discouragement may lead to inaction when the librarian finds herself in a school whose aims and library "temperature" may be shown graphically on the educational thermometer of the Cooperative Study as far below average; a challenge if the situation is seen to present a rare opportunity for constructive work.

Without question, the latter point of view is the one to be maintained. The librarian will not then make the mistake of sitting back and accepting poor practice because it may be common practice, or of thinking that goals not yet attained are necessarily unattainable. In the library, as elsewhere, reach may well exceed grasp; objectives and standards are the compasses by which the course is set.

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II

Functions and Activities

The Library a Reading Center

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I. THE IMPORTANCE OF READING

In their *Teaching High School Pupils to Read*,¹ Center and Persons report that 25 per cent of the entering classes in a certain New York City high school were reading at or below the sixth-grade level, and 64 per cent below ninth-grade level. In another study made in a Chicago suburban area involving some six thousand ninth-grade pupils, Gray states that 22 per cent showed a reading ability below that of sixth grade, while 9 per cent showed only fourth-grade ability or less.²

Other recent studies reveal that in every grade from seventh through twelfth there are some pupils of third-grade reading ability working beside those with a superior rating. Will James' *Cowboy in the Making* represents as great an achievement on the part of one twelfth grader as Welles' *Time for Decision* represents for a superior classmate.

¹ Center, S. S., and Persons, G. L. *Teaching High School Students to Read*. Appleton-Century, 1937, p.6, 13. "National Council of Teachers of English Monograph," no. 6.

² Gray, W. S. "Nature and Extent of the Reading Problem in American Education." *Educational Record Supplement* 11:90-91, January 1938.

Equally significant data are also available to indicate the direct relationship between silent reading ability and progress in curricular subjects.³ One authority in the field of reading has gone so far as to state that the assumption generally made up to recent years that by the end of the sixth grade a normal child should be considered able to read efficiently is "a fallacy that has disrupted American education more seriously than any other."⁴

Everywhere the educational world is agreed that without reading there is little learning, or at best, learning under a most discouraging handicap.

The importance of reading is underlined by other considerations which need emphasis at a time when formerly unheard of avenues of learning such as radio and moving pictures are opening. So striking were the results achieved through the use of the screen in military education during World War II that many an educator and librarian has been led to ask whether in the end we shall cease to rely on the printed page as a principal means of learning. But, as one observer has put it, the "Messianic" or "band-wagon" approach to audio-visual learning is decried even by the more thoughtful leaders in the movement themselves. As far as any level-headed modern prophet is able to predict, reading must continue to play a leading part in the educational process for many years.

II. THE SCHOOL READING PROGRAM

1. **Historical glance.**⁵ In the light of the educational importance of reading, it is not strange that it has from the beginning occupied a prominent place in the curriculum. It was the first of the traditional three R's, with primary emphasis upon mastery of the mechanics of oral reading. Other aims prior to 1910 were to introduce pupils to selections of literary quality (the McGuffey Readers) and so cultivate appreciation for the classics.

After 1910, a distinct shift in emphasis became recognizable. Silent reading with stress on comprehension of what was read took the place of

³ A good example: Buckingham, G. E., "Relationship Between Silent Reading Ability and First Year Algebra Ability." *Mathematics Teacher* 30:130-32, March 1937.

⁴ Uhl, W. L. "The Materials of Reading." In *National Society for the Study of Education. Thirty-sixth Yearbook, Pt. I: The Teaching of Reading*. Public School Pub. Co., 1937, p.216.

⁵ In this summary the author has drawn largely on Gray, W. S. "Social and Educational Changes Affecting the Library." In *National Society for the Study of Education. Forty-second Yearbook, Pt. II: The Library in General Education*, 1943, p.27-28. (Distributed by the Department of Education, Univ. of Chicago.)

the glib pronunciation of words which to the pupil might be meaningless; and wide reading for information and for pleasure superseded a narrow devotion to the literary masterpiece.

By 1915, speed and extent of reading were being vigorously emphasized in addition to the aims just mentioned, but the content of the reading materials selected for use was not very consciously related to the personal and very human needs of boys and girls. The book was still the thing, and not the reader.

Then came between 1925 and 1930 what Gray has called the discovery of the poor reader. Ascertaining the nature of such a reader's difficulties and of methods of increasing his reading efficiency became the concern of specialists and research workers and also of teachers in elementary and high schools. Nor has the necessity for such effort since diminished. In spite of better understanding of the reader's troubles and of steadily improving methods for meeting them, the backward reader is still with us and probably will be as long as physical and mental inequalities continue to retard or inhibit.

Today, another forward step is in evidence. With no diminution of effort to increase skill and efficiency in reading up to and including high school years and no relaxation of interest in the cultivation of essential attitudes, appreciations and habits, the needs of the individual reader have assumed a hitherto unknown importance. His reading growth and the changes to be produced in him through his reading have become matters of growing consequence.

2. **Present aims.** For full statement and discussion of today's aims see recent pronouncements of the National Council of Teachers of English, the American Council on Education, the National Society for the Study of Education, and the Progressive Education Association,⁶ several of which are generously drawn upon in the present book.

In the elementary field, perhaps for the librarian the most significant aspect of stated aims is the way in which such aims reach beyond the mere acquisition of skill in the mechanics of reading and the understanding of what is read to include rich and varied experience, to develop strong motives for and permanent interests in reading, to encourage the intelligent use of books as sources of information, and to foster reading of a wide range of printed materials for pleasure and for personal development.

⁶ See bibliography at end of chapter.

Aims for the secondary school have been well summarized by Tyler in a review of a study made by the Progressive Education Association:

- Mastery of reading skills
- Familiarity with the various forms of literary art
- A disposition to read for fun
- The use of reading in developing serious interests and purposes
- Acquaintance with some "book of all time" in each of the arts and sciences
- Effective use of reference materials
- Acquaintance with adult ideas and life situations of increasing maturity, complexity, subtlety, and scope
- Recognition of certain authors, or of characters in fiction and biography as kindred spirits [of the reader]
- The use of reading to develop balanced judgment and emotional stability
- The use of reading as a means of vicarious participation in adult situations⁷

To these ten values or aims there might be added another frequently appearing now in educational literature:

- The use of reading in solving personal problems or in developing personal interests and hobbies

3. Organization and methods. In the pursuit of these aims or values, the reading program in the elementary school has been extended and methods adopted that are of capital importance for the library. To it pupils come with their teachers for free reading periods during which they browse along the shelves, sample many books and magazines, and, guided by teacher and librarian, settle down to read that which has personal appeal and is adjusted to personal ability. In the place of formal book reports, pupils dramatize what has been read or gather in groups to talk over their reading experiences. They put on programs about books and authors, impersonating favorite book characters. They play library games and listen to records of verse or hero tales as rendered by the best of readers and storytellers.

In the secondary school, literature units⁸ are built around centers of interest (adventure, travel in South America) or forms of literature (the novel, modern drama, narrative verse) rather than about periods in literary history. Masterpieces of world literature are read as well as the classics of English literature. Scientific discovery finds a place on the reading

⁷ Tyler, Ralph. "Study of Adolescent Reading by the Progressive Education Association." In Wilson, L.R., ed. *Library Trends*. Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1937, p.275.

⁸ Similar devices are used in science, social science, art, etc. and are treated elsewhere in this book.

list along with humorous essays, personality development, social welfare, home life. Since "the major experience in using literature is reading it abundantly, with enjoyment, under normal reading conditions," free reading periods are scheduled in the library and often become stepping-stones to further voluntary reading adventures there or at home.

Book reports lose their stereotyped formality as the class resolves itself into a round table or forum group, each member contributing out of his reading, or evaluating for the benefit of the group the book or magazine perused. Selections are read aloud, or listened to through recordings; in fact, proceedings in the classroom may so closely resemble those of a reading club that the necessity for extra-curricular clubs has been, according to one thoughtful observer, considerably minimized.

III. SEVEN LIBRARY FUNCTIONS

Acquisition of materials.—The word is "materials" and not "books"; for there is a growing conviction that the library should be responsible for the purchase of many types of reading matter (periodicals, pamphlets, and books) as well as audio-visual aids including recordings and films.

The processes by which books and other materials are secured are considered later (Chapter XI). For present emphasis is the fact that the modern school expects from its library full implementation of all aspects of the reading program down to texts, and sometimes including texts.⁹

Making materials available.—The library cannot stop with procuring books. It makes them available. It subscribes to the policy of the open door and the open shelf. Research has proved that accessibility provides a most potent impetus to reading. Personal experience confirms this. All of us spend a great deal of time reading whatever happens our way: the newspaper picked up at the door, the thriller bought on the train, the volume of verse found on a friend's table. The mere presence in the school of a wide variety of reading materials in a room open to all carries forward the reading program quite as effectively as formal instruction.

Stimulating the reading habit.—It may be difficult for those who have been brought up with books and so naturally turn to them to enliven their lighter hours as well as to provide courage, inspiration and knowledge to realize that there are many boys and girls who can read but who do so with real reluctance. To stimulate the desire to use printed materials therefore becomes a most important function of the library.

⁹ Consult index for discussion of textbook and audio-visual administration by the library.

As already suggested, the availability of attractive books is in itself a powerful stimulus. As the bakery window makes the mouth water, so the mere sight of delectable reading matter creates a reading appetite. Publicity also plays a significant role: the display of colorful jackets and posters, exhibits of hobbies engaged in with the aid of library books, enticing book notes in the school paper written by boys and girls who have found something fascinating to read and are eager to tell others about it. Recordings and films make their appeal through ear and eye. Activities involving the handling of books help.

Creating favorable atmosphere.—This cannot be over-emphasized. It begins with the open door and open shelves, both of which savor of welcome. The open door means unrationed and easy admission, and the open shelf is to be taken literally. Provision for physical comfort also aids: good lighting and good ventilation; chairs that suit the contours of the human frame—not too high, too straight-backed, or too narrow of seat; an occasional window bench or wide-armed windsor chair set a little apart to suggest an hour at ease with a book or a magazine—all these help. Quiet likewise spreads a subtle influence, offering relief from the clamor and din of noisy streets and overcrowded homes. In the library not a few boys and girls find a peace and release from tension nowhere else available. Of movement and activity there is plenty, but it is light-footed and purposeful—not such as to interfere with an hour of reflective reading or deep emotional experience.

Most important of all is the atmosphere created by librarian and staff. It is characterized by friendliness, helpfulness, good humor, approachability, and quick and sympathetic reaction to a pupil's show of interest. Boys and girls quickly learn to seek and to prize guidance which is not forced. Suggestions for reading made casually over the circulation desk register unmistakably. So do expressions of interest in what has been read.

Providing laboratory conditions.—A laboratory is a place where materials are available for use and experimentation—where students learn to do by doing.¹⁰ It is a center for trying out this and that; a place where each may be thrilled by the discovery of another.

As a reading laboratory, the library is a room where, under guidance, pupils explore the shelves, dipping into books and magazines, pamphlet and picture files; where they learn how to employ books as tools by using

¹⁰ Hayner, C. I. "The School Library as a Laboratory for English Activities." *English Journal* 30:19-24, January 1941.

them for reference and exploration; where in the lower grades particularly, but in the high school if there are special reading or lecture rooms, pupils share experiences through storytelling, dramatization, reviewing, discussion and other social enterprises. Demonstration is also possible; for as the teacher or librarian or pupil talks of books and authors he illustrates with books from the shelves.

Special rooms are needed. The main reading room should be a laboratory up to the point of allowing reasonable freedom of movement and of individual exploration and investigation. But if group activities are to be carried on without that scheduling which excludes most pupils not in the group it is essential to have special rooms which can be closed off from the main reading center. Well-planned libraries now provide such rooms.

At the secondary school level, experiments are being made with special English reading laboratories in which are shelved generous and well-assorted collections of books. This arrangement has much to recommend it, provided enough duplicates are available to stock the English laboratory and still leave the main library with well-filled shelves. Where such duplication cannot be afforded, the plan is open to question. Such a plan must always be approached with full realization of the book service the library owes to the school at large and not with a narrow conception of its duties in relation to the English program.

Providing classroom collections.—In the modern school much directed reading is done in classrooms not devoted to English. The fixed classroom library made up of an unchanging collection of books permanently housed in the classroom cupboard is now rapidly giving way to fluid collections selected from the resources of the library proper as occasion demands and housed in the classroom only for the duration of the unit of learning to which they relate. It should be added that such arrangements do not preclude the permanent retention in the classroom of an occasional manual or reference title of so highly specialized a nature as to be of more use there than anywhere else; for after all, what the library is after is to get books used.

Books arrive in the classroom in every conceivable way. When the number required is not too large, manual transportation may suffice. Or truck loads of materials chosen by pupil committees, by teachers, or by the librarian, or all three working together, are wheeled to the desired location. One school makes use of a movable periodical rack which is pushed into classrooms where magazine study is in progress. A handy little carrier, or portable trough has been found a convenience elsewhere.

The advantages of the fluid classroom collection need scarcely be urged. Instead of stale, poorly cared for and limited reading matter, the pupil is provided with fresh materials closely related to the unit of study immediately in hand, and the instructor is relieved of the continued care of books, often a burden. On the side of learning, the arrangement is also advantageous, for constant interchange makes both pupils and teachers library conscious as well as book conscious and prevents the deadening use of too narrow a range of materials. Indeed, the choice of books for the classroom is not infrequently made a joint teacher and pupil enterprise with a wider acquaintance with books one of its avowed aims.

The successful administration of classroom collections naturally requires a high degree of cooperative planning between librarian and instructor. While the lending of library materials to classrooms should be a daily occurrence, it must be so arranged as not to disrupt service to the school as a whole. No single classroom may be allowed to pre-empt items on which other departments have an equal claim. If wanted titles cannot be duplicated, or their use staggered to the satisfaction of both claimants, the books are retained in the central library where they are freely available to all.

Extension services.—One way of extending library service is through clubs. Some school libraries conduct their own reading clubs—voluntary groups presided over by some member of the library staff. Programs are as varied as club names,¹¹ but on general aims there is agreement, i.e., to broaden and to deepen reading experiences and appreciations.

To be effective, reading clubs must be limited in membership, and this sometimes raises a puzzling question. Can the librarian afford to lavish the necessary attention on so limited a group? Certainly she cannot if in so doing she must cut services to the many other groups, curricular and extra-curricular, which are sponsored by the school. On the other hand, the librarian may find the intimate contacts with pupils afforded by the club, and the consequently closer insight into the reading attitudes, likes and dislikes of club members, of inestimable value in serving larger groups. No rule can be laid down governing the librarian's reading club activities. It all depends.

When it comes to the various clubs organized by the school or affiliated with it, no limitations should be placed on the services of the library, either in the way of providing materials or in personal aid, save the limitations

¹¹ See indexes to Fargo, L. F. *Activity Book for School Libraries* and *Activity Book Number Two* for examples of programs.

imposed by printed resources and by librarian time. Club officers, leaders and program makers should be kept constantly aware of library resources including all new materials and should expect as a matter of course to utilize to the fullest extent library facilities and the services of the librarian as storyteller, book reviewer, literary adviser, and readers' guide.

Library services should be extended to forums and other discussion groups, to Scout, Campfire, and similar organizations, and to parents. If the last are not interested in what their boys and girls are reading and in helping them to develop reading taste through wise selection of books for the home library, they certainly ought to be, and the librarian is short-sighted who fails to extend aid wherever opportunity offers—or wherever she can make an opportunity. Some have done so through Parent-Teacher organizations—occasional meetings in the library with appropriate displays of books, book talks by the librarian and by the parents themselves, informal discussion of the reading problems presented by children and young people, the sharing of reading experience that is just as important for parents as for children. Combined parent and children reading circles have occasionally been experimented with.¹²

IV. READING GUIDANCE

1. **The need.** That there is imperative need for more and better reading guidance is borne out by the findings of many studies of the voluntary reading of school pupils and of boys and girls who have left school. All such studies indicate that guidance has not been very successful so far in spite of the fact that reading stands at the top of the leisure time activities enjoyed by young people.¹³ American boys and girls read, but they do not read the right things. Surrounded by reading materials the majority of which are mediocre or sensational, they face the ever-present temptation to read the "worse" rather than the "better" publication. Even when, as in an excellent school library, desirable publications are more accessible than their opposites, there can be no assurance that the former will receive adequate attention unless incentives are applied.

To increase the reading of the better publications to the proportional decrease of the worse, the reader must be led to prefer them by sympathetic and, usually, individual guidance. . . .

¹² *Ibid.*

¹³ Rainey, H. P. "How Can Libraries Help to Meet the Needs of Youth?" *A.L.A. Bulletin* 31:406-14, July 1937.

Without effective guidance beyond the conventional school assignments students read largely for thrills. With effective guidance they read to follow the news and to satisfy their curiosity about important adolescent questions involving sex, choice of careers, problems of personality, current hobbies, unfamiliar and appealing types of character, and much else.¹⁴

2. **Reading interests.** Effective guidance requires intimate knowledge of the reading interests of children and youth. The field is one that long ago captured the attention of librarians and teachers. For awhile scientific investigation of these interests was left largely to educators, librarians meantime piling up valuable experience through observation of books read and enjoyed. The result in some cases was that, while the educator knew in terms of scientific investigation and psychology the interests to be satisfied, the librarian was the one who best knew what books to prescribe. Obviously, each had something to learn from the other. With the steady development of adequate library service in and out of schools the process of interchange has been rapid and mutually satisfactory. Librarians have increasingly studied the psychology of childhood and youth, and have availed themselves of scientific methods of investigation, while teachers have become increasingly well acquainted with books for boys and girls.

A sizable body of literature dealing with interests at various age levels is available. Among useful titles is *Children's Reading* by Terman and Lima,¹⁵ issued some years ago but still a valuable tool for those who would guide the reading of boys and girls particularly in their younger years. In summary, but with the substitution of an occasional current title in place of an outmoded favorite and of some current observations made by school librarians, these authors suggest that:

The picture book interest, developed very early, lasts up to the age of eight or even nine with the nature story first in importance. At six and seven, fairy tales, myths, and legends in direct discourse are enjoyed when read aloud. Eight, or according to many children's librarians, nine, is the point of highest interest in fairy tales, with Andersen, Grimm and Lang prime favorites. Eight sees also the development of curiosity about real life, when realistic animal and nature stories are read. At nine, there is a more decided emergence from fancy into fact, especially among boys, who are here fascinated by Boy Scout books and stories of boy life generally.

¹⁴ Waples, Douglas, and Carnovsky, Leon. *Libraries and Readers in the State of New York*. Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1939, p.4-5.

¹⁵ Terman, L. M., and Lima, Margaret. *Children's Reading*. 2d ed. Appleton, 1931, chapter 5.

"This is the golden age . . . to encourage children in the reading of real literature. The mechanical part of reading has, as a rule, been mastered, and to read a book is no longer a task to be accomplished with difficulty." Books of a hundred pages or more are now covered with ease.

At ten, boys are practically through with fairy tales, though this is not always true with girls. Travel books, the manners and customs of other lands now hold the attention. This is the time when *Heidi* and *Children of the Soil* come into their own and can be used to vitalize geography and history. Inventions and mechanics also begin to attract the attention, especially among boys. Simple biography, not too long, is suggested, and also myths and legends of Robin Hood, William Tell and King Arthur, which "open up a new field for hero worship which reaches its climax later at about the age of twelve or thirteen. The interest in biography also brings an interest in history, in the events with which these famous people were concerned."

At eleven, the child is reading the books commonly passed around among children: comic books, the Nancy Drew mysteries and the like. A danger period this, when the undesirable series gets a fast hold. It is the adventure and mystery in these that hold the boys, and accounts of home life that fascinate the girls. At this time also sex differences are much in evidence, and while girls may read the adventure tales affected by boys, they fail for the most part to follow the boy in his scientific and mechanical explorations, turning rather to stories of real people and to animal stories with emotional appeal such as *Lassie Come Home*. They also get a first introduction to love stories, soon to be an absorbing passion.

At twelve, interest in reading approaches a climax, and the range so broadens for both boys and girls that it is extremely difficult briefly to encompass its many facets. Biography here proves enthralling, for this is the age of hero worship—and biography must be that of people of action as Eisenhower or Boone. The boy's love for tales of danger and daring may at this age grow into a taste for sensationalism. But the lad with some literary taste may dip into Dickens, Dumas, or Hugo while not dropping his interest in myths and hero stories. Girls lean toward the homelike narrative such as *Caddie Woodlawn* or *Blue Willow*, career stories, and accounts of school life, while retaining a decided liking for adventure tales. Bible stories interest them more generally than they do boys who enjoy chiefly the David and Goliath type. Science and invention must have a personal side to hold the girls; that is, must be connected with biography

or the home. But the boys range everywhere. The great step for the girl at this time is her dip into adult fiction, the more sentimental the better, as a rule. She is an adolescent.

At thirteen, few new reading interests develop. Instead, old ones are intensified. Boys look for books emphasizing "physical fitness, mastery of handicaps and rugged experience" as now exemplified in the works of W. Meader, J. R. Tunis, F. M. Reck and Howard Pease.¹⁶ They also enjoy more complicated science, ride hobbies, and taste the thrills of invention vicariously as well as actually, while girls pursue their explorations into the adult world of emotion and sentiment. Whether these explorations are helpful or harmful depends largely on guidance. The world's greatest literature may hold the girl now, as well as verse and drama; or she may never get beyond *The Trail of the Lonesome Pine* or *The Heart Has April Too*.

At fourteen, adolescence is in full swing, and interests become more specialized. Periodical literature furnishes unexpected delights. The boy's interest in mechanics becomes technical and experimental, involving the use of reference aids, and he absorbs nonfiction willingly, especially science, biography, history and travel. He in his turn takes his plunge into novels, but those with plenty of action suit him best. In the meantime the girl's interest in career stories has reached its peak and with oncoming maturity she may become steeped in sentimental fiction drawn from adult shelves. Guidance in the direction of world famous love stories and well-chosen verse helps her to satisfy her emotional urge more wisely.

At fifteen, the reading peak is past. High school studies and social life make heavy inroads on reading time, and though books are still read in large numbers, they must share their popularity with other interests. Mark Twain, Byrd, Ellsberg, and Nordhoff are much-wanted authors. Romantic fiction is still a supreme interest with girls, as witness the popularity of Daly's *Seventeenth Summer*, and, unless there has been developed by this time a right literary mind-set, the case for later improvement is well-nigh hopeless. Boys, too, may get off on the wrong foot during adolescence, but they are more apt to be saved by their wider interests if the right books are available, especially along the lines of their hobbies and mechanical experimentation.

After sixteen, Terman and Lima conclude that, since reading interests become more and more individual and specialized and like those of adults,

¹⁶ Haebich, K. A. "What Are Adolescents Reading?" *Wilson Library Bulletin* 20:289 ff.

generalizations no longer apply. In the main, experienced librarians would probably agree, though a very general desire for inspirational titles like Cronin's *Keys of the Kingdom* and Walker's *Winter Wheat* has been noted.¹⁷

During World War II there was everywhere an upsurge of educational interest in geography and the social and mechanical sciences generally. Whether this is to become an enduring trend remains to be seen, but it has grave implications for the library. If it persists, greatly increased demand may be expected for pamphlets, periodicals, visual aids and books dealing with travel, aeronautics, chemistry and physics in all their applications, and with world affairs and political systems. Classes in social and natural science will continue to be scheduled for free reading periods in the library.

3. Principles and methods.

Ascertain interests of reader.—In the rapid survey of the last few pages it has been necessary to treat readers as groups. But the first principle of successful guidance is to ascertain the interests of the individual reader. The librarian may be well aware that boys of fourteen rather generally like books of simple science. But Henry Smith may be an exception. If he is not, there is still the problem of finding out what particular aspects of science appeal to him. Besides, he has other interests. It may be necessary to help him discover through a book or a magazine what to do about keeping up with his crowd on a limited allowance.

Unfortunately, discovery of Henry's interests, and those of his fellows, may be considerably more difficult than satisfying them after they are discovered. Methods discussed later under the heading of "the psychological approach" will help, as will general familiarity with child and adolescent psychology.

Present interests only a point of departure.—A second principle is involved in the statement that present interest should be only a point of departure. It is easy to be misled by pupils' own statements concerning what kind of reading they like as well as by research studies based on what boys and girls read voluntarily without the opportunities for broad reading experience furnished by a good library. Hasty conclusions based on either approach are unwise. Interests can be stimulated and developed. The question, "Do you have another book like this?" provides a lead and at the same time a challenge. The book read should not be merely a stepping-

¹⁷ *Ibid.*

stone to another, since that implies going ahead on the same level. It should be one step on a ladder of progress to a higher level. To aid the librarian, there exist "ladder lists," the best known of which at the secondary school level is probably Roos' *What Shall We Read Next?*¹⁸ But the librarian who aspires to excellence in the field of reading guidance must constantly have her own mental "ladder lists" ready for use at any moment if she is to prevent reading "debauches"—prolonged and gluttonous indulgence in one type of reading, usually fiction, that is no more stimulating than forever skating in a small circle.

Reading is experiencing.—A third principle is reading is experiencing, much of it emotional. Directing attention to books on concrete subjects, "China" or "Airplanes" or "Occupations for the Handicapped" is not enough. The possibilities for spiritual and emotional experience should never be overlooked. Beside the book on the identification of airplanes, the librarian places Anne Lindbergh's *North to the Orient*; beside the bulletin on crafts for the disabled, that sensitive autobiography for the more mature reader, Katherine Hathaway's *The Little Locksmith*.

It is to be remembered that youth is a period of intense likes and dislikes, some lasting, others a flickering flame, highly evanescent. While a flame of liking lasts, it must be fed; when it dies, search must be made for other emotional experience. A librarian must be on the alert to catch the gleams as they flicker here and there, for hidden beneath the bald adolescent assertion, "I love sad stories," or a downright disclaimer of interest in verse, may lie underground springs of unreleased emotion, secret enthusiasms, and capabilities for aesthetic and spiritual pleasure which somehow must be found and brought to the surface.

Reading is sharing.—The principle that reading is sharing has already been suggested. First, of course, it consists in sharing vicariously in the experiences of the author. But there is another angle to sharing not to be overlooked, and that is sharing with someone else what has been read. During their library hour, elementary school children frequently tell classmates about what they have found in books. In the high school, discussion groups meeting in the library, lecture or conference room thresh over ideas drawn from books or compare opinions on authors and their works. At all levels, sharing with the librarian enthusiasms, likes and dislikes, is to be encouraged. The librarian shares, too, by chatting informally about books and, on occasion, expatiating enthusiastically on her own reading.

¹⁸ Roos, J. C., comp. *What Shall We Read Next?* Rev. ed. Wilson, 1940.

Materials and methods must be in line with pupil capacity.—This principle is especially important in the case of retarded readers, but is also fundamental in dealing with the bright pupil who too frequently fails to receive guidance in line with his reading ability. The results of intelligence tests and pupils' reading scores are usually available in the school office. Frequently too the reading records of individual pupils are available there or in the English department. All such records are extremely helpful and should be used, particularly when the librarian has any reason to doubt her personal impressions of a pupil's reading ability.

Librarian interests are not to be mistaken for pupil interests.—Instructive and amusing studies have been made showing how frequently adults, including teachers and librarians, go wrong in assuming that the reading interests of boys and girls are identical with their own. Too often a philosophical essay is recommended to a boy who wants a book on the principles of flight; epic verse is offered instead of lyrics of love and friendship; sophisticated wit is urged above bubbling humor. It is too bad to insist on the reading of *A Doll's House* when *Life With Father* is holding the boards. It is also a waste of time.

On the other hand, enthusiasm is catching. The librarian who is herself a wide reader frequently imbues pupils with her own enthusiasm. Members of a fourth-grade class entering the library for a free reading period were observed to proceed with remarkable unanimity to the poetry shelves. "How do you account for such devotion to verse?" was asked of the librarian. Her reply was enlightening. "I guess it's because I love poetry myself."

4. *The psychological approach.* The use of practical psychology in appealing to the reader is extremely necessary.

Casual or indirect approach.—A conversation about what the pupil did yesterday, or during his vacation, or while on a visit leads naturally to talk about books covering the activities reported. Posters, displays of book jackets, short typed memorandums pasted inside the book cover, "If you liked this book you will probably enjoy reading——," are more effective than a direct "Here is a book which every high school student ought to read"—a bald recommendation well calculated to scare away any but the most ambitious.

Approval.—Approval is better than criticism. A little personal flattery helps—or approval of evidence of growth. When a junior girl returns Robert Frost's *Come In* with the remark she loved the drawings and the

little poems about everyday matters, the librarian can comment with sincere enthusiasm on the young reader's growing appreciation of the beauties of simplicity, only she puts it in more homely fashion.

Challenge.—A challenge sometimes works, especially with better readers or potentially better readers who are inclined to be intellectually lazy. To remark to such a one that the copy of Hogben's *Mathematics for the Million* he has tentatively pulled from the shelf has had a remarkable sale but is probably over the head of a high school mathematician may be precisely the right spur. Most of us like to do what others think we cannot do, and it hurts none of us to stretch.

Providing choices.—Providing choices is always desirable. To place several volumes in the hands of the reader with a few illuminating word-of-mouth annotations and then leave him alone is to avoid all appearance of dictation and to help him develop his ability to evaluate. Whatever the librarian does, she should refrain from hovering like an anxious parent.

Exciting curiosity.—The clever guide never tells all. As Effie Power puts it,¹⁹ she stops at the point of acceptance, leaving something to explore. The outcome of the plot is still unrevealed as the young borrower marches off to find out what happened, and the climax is not spoiled by the librarian's premature revelation. It is enough to arouse interest and pique curiosity.

Motivating.—Motivation should be sought. It may come not alone through the probing of individual interests, but through the curriculum and current happenings in the school. By means of personal visits to classrooms, conferences with teachers, and the cooperation of pupil liaison officers appointed to keep the librarian up to date on classroom doings, she knows what is happening and capitalizes on it. Another way to secure motivation is to provide experiences that encourage reading. Teachers use this method regularly and the librarian should not neglect it. Examples are found in such activities as preparation by the library club of material for literary quiz programs, book discussions, book previews, imaginary radio interviews with authors.²⁰ Good radio programs or good moving pictures either at school or at the local theatre also provide excellent motivation.

Getting the reader's point of view.—Guidance is salesmanship, and few

¹⁹ Power, E. L. *Work with Children in Public Libraries*. A.L.A., 1943, p.93.

²⁰ Consult Fargo, L. F. *Activity Book for School Libraries* and *Activity Book Number Two* under Auditorium Programs, Audio-Visual Activities, etc.

sales are made by forcing ideas upon the buyer. The librarian must try to find out what the buyer's ideas are and then try to satisfy them. Does he like war stories, or would he prefer something about jungle animals? Introducing a book to a girl, the librarian does not confine herself to "This is a story of Alaskan life," but suggests that if the prospective reader likes adventure here is a thrilling tale about a girl who married and went north with her young husband to dare the Arctic and hunt for gold in Alaska.

Building up confidence.—Playing fair with readers. In introducing a book, the librarian points out difficulties as well as attractions. If the volume has a slow beginning, but later becomes exciting, she does not forget to say so. If *Zone Policeman 88* is in reality about the building of the Panama Canal, it is better to indicate that fact than to let the pupil walk off with the book thinking it is about criminals in a big city.

Inculcating the idea that there is a book about everything.—May Lamberton Becker tells a story concerning the young son of a famous author that is apropos. In no uncertain terms the lad declared a complete lack of interest in reading, but, he added as an afterthought, he had discovered that there were nearly always books about things he was interested in!

Avoiding condescension or sentimentality.—Avoiding any appearance of condescension or sentimentality goes a long way toward making friends of children and young people. In dealing with younger readers, Effie Power warns specifically against the hand-on-the-shoulder attitude.²¹ Children are a good deal like grownups. They resent undue familiarity—especially from the age of nine or ten on.

Selecting attractive format.—Paying attention to size and format of reading materials is important, particularly in the case of the reluctant or inexperienced reader. A small book regularly gets a better reception than a big, heavy one. Because magazine material is usually brief and readable, it is well to remark that a book suggested appeared first in magazine form. Generous illustration and attractive page layouts do much to recommend a book. As a matter of practical library administration this argues against too frequent purchase of inexpensive editions as a measure of economy.

V. MEANS OF GUIDANCE

It has been impossible to deal with the principles of and psychological approaches to guidance without at the same time touching on the means to be employed. But there remain a number of practical suggestions.

²¹ *Op. cit.* p.93-94.

1. "Floor work." In larger school libraries the term "floor work" is used to describe the activities of a member of the staff who is relieved of desk duties and moves freely about offering help where help is needed. She suggests titles to be read or reference volumes to be consulted, gives assistance on the spot in cases of reading difficulty; in short, she takes advantage of the opportunities for guidance previously suggested.

Even in small libraries where much of the librarian's time must be given to administrative and technical duties, she should never allow herself to become permanently tied to her desk. A good administrator always finds ways to relieve himself of routine tasks easily carried on by someone less important; and the administrator of a school library should be no exception to the rule. In many school libraries pupils look after attendance, circulation, and other routine matters. With such cooperation, the librarian has time to be her own floor worker.

2. *Lists as guides.* An excellent way for the amateur librarian to glimpse the reading interests of children and young people consists in looking over outstanding reading lists sponsored by experienced librarians and teachers. Among such lists for young people are:

AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION and NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
JOINT COMMITTEE. *By Way of Introduction*. Rev. ed. A.L.A., 1947.

A recreational reading list of great value.

The Booklist. "Books for Young People." A.L.A.

A list that appears in each issue.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH. *Books for You*. The Council
(21 W. 68th Street, Chicago), 1945.

Arranged by themes and types.

NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY BOOK COMMITTEE FOR YOUNG PEOPLE. *Books
for Young People*.

Published as the January issue of the New York Public Library *Branch
Library News*.

WRIGHT, A. M., ed. *Books for Youth; a Guide for Teen Age Readers*.
Toronto Public Libraries, 1940.

For children there are:

BEUST, N. E. *500 Books for Children*. U.S. Office of Education, 1939.
(Bulletin No. 11)

An authoritative list now supplemented by one compiled by Miss Beust and Mrs. Eleanore F. Clift appearing in *School Life*, October 1945, and also available as a reprint.

EATON, A. T. *Treasure for the Taking*. Viking, 1946.

Suggests possible titles for the child's personal library or those to be sought in public or school libraries. Hobbies and special interests are included.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH. *Reading for Fun*. The Council, 1937. (In process of revision.)

SMITH, L. H. *Books for Boys and Girls*. 2d. ed. Ryerson Pr., 1940.

Especially designed for Canadian boys and girls.

Other excellent lists appear currently from the children's and young people's departments of outstanding libraries. Catalogs of books for school libraries such as the H. W. Wilson standard catalog series have been omitted because they are not based primarily on reading interests but on the library's need for an all-round collection of books factual and otherwise.

3. Miscellaneous devices.

Reading records.—Individual reading records are an aid in guidance. Continuous records of pupils' reading, if kept at all, are apt to be housed in classrooms or office but they should be freely consulted by the librarian. In some libraries circulation records include a reader's card which shows titles borrowed, and so helps in guidance.

Annotations file.—A file of book annotations written by pupils is helpful. Annotations are signed by the individuals writing them and the file is open to all, for it is no secret that boys and girls frequently accept the evaluations put upon books by members of their own group more readily than those by adults.

Group lists.—A related device consists of compiling and publicizing through posters and the school paper *short lists of books read and enjoyed by special groups*. A heading such as "The Juniors Recommend" tells its own story. The lists should, of course, be annotated.

Color bands.—In English literature reading rooms or special reading alcoves, color bands have sometimes been used to distribute pupils' reading experiences over a wide range of topics. Travel and exploration, for example, are indicated by a strip of red gummed paper appearing across the spine of the book; biography is indicated by blue; fiction by orange; and so on. Every English pupil is given a wide range of choices, but his reading record must show that he has run the gamut of the color scheme in, shall we say, the Rainbow Reading Room. Simple devices such as this have been employed in secondary schools as well as in work with younger children. One very attractive high school English reading room arranged on this plan reports it a success.

School paper, etc.—Possibilities for guidance through the school paper, the public address system of the school, and the auditorium are many. Some have already been mentioned. The important thing to remember is that the more the librarian stays in the background the better. She does not compile the brief lists on "How to Make Friends," "What to Do on a Date," or "Some Books Dictators Have Burned," that appear in the Blanktown High School News; nor does she write the annotations for "Best Magazines Articles of the Month," a program offered over the public address system. Not if she can help it. Rather, she unobtrusively guides an aspiring young reviewer to the books or magazine articles in question, or lets him discover them for himself with the laudable purpose of relaying them to the rest of the school.

Reading as an evidence of culture.—When secondary school pupils near graduation, they may take quite seriously the idea of reading as an evidence of culture. Guidance through lists of "Famous Authors Everyone Should Know" or "What I Should Read Before Receiving My Diploma" bear fruit. A fine custom in one school is a *personal reading conference* with the librarian scheduled for every senior prior to graduation. During this conference, such matters are discussed as interests, "holes" in knowledge or aesthetic appreciation that may be rectified by wise reading, the relation of the reading habit to intellectual progress and vocational advancement. One outcome of the conference is a brief reading list given with the advice that, if the outgoing student is not already a user of public library resources, he try them out list in hand. Invitations to read may be sent from the public library itself, to be wrapped in diplomas, but these do not have quite the same personal appeal.

Radio and moving pictures.—Radio and moving pictures are used in many ways to guide and stimulate reading. Libraries post calendars of coming screen events not only to encourage attendance at excellent pictures, but in the knowledge that seeing a movie may lead to reading. If the feature is a story film, some pupils will wish to read the story. If it is biography, travel or adventure, the book on which it is based will be read if properly publicized through lists and exhibits. Public libraries have distributed brief lists in the theatres themselves. School libraries may make lists available on bulletin boards and in the school paper.

Through publicity, listeners' calendars, and listeners' clubs the library calls attention to literary talks by radio commentators, to readings and distinguished radio drama and suggests follow-up reading. Additional oppor-



A book quiz on the air reaches classrooms and libraries

The library supplies frequent changes in the classroom collection





The librarian gives individual assistance

Pupils assemble material for a social studies class



tunities exist in records and films housed in the library and available for use there, in classrooms, and before club groups.

Catalogs, indexes, etc.—Means of guidance which may fail to be recognized as such are the well-organized, well-annotated card catalog, periodical indexes, printed indexes to poetry, essays, drama, and the like, and for older students, book reviewing publications such as the *Saturday Review of Literature*. The mistake should not be made of considering any of these to be for librarian use only. Properly motivated and properly timed instruction in their use helps the pupil steer his own reading course with intelligence and satisfaction.

Guidance for teachers should not be overlooked, for they, as well as pupils, appreciate suggestions for reading if offered tactfully by the librarian. Mimeographed or printed forms are time savers in making such suggestions. They have spaces for date, author, title, and call number, plus a line or two on which to indicate the nature of the suggested title or the school unit to which the material relates. The librarian applies her signature with that rubber stamp which is one of her most used tools.

Sometimes books themselves are placed in the teachers' hands for a limited period prior to general circulation, or they are put on exhibition and held there for a week after notices calling attention to their arrival have been sent.

VI. QUALITIES OF THE GUIDE

In the long run, probably no one thing has so much to do with success in reading guidance as the personality and reading background of the librarian. There must be about her a welcoming air that makes the approach to her of either teachers or pupils easy and natural and that encourages confidence. She must remember that "enthusiasm is caught rather than taught." She must develop the listening ear, and help both groups to become articulate about their needs and conclusions concerning books read. She must cultivate an outgoing personality that meets the interests of her patrons more than halfway if she expects her wares to appear truly inviting.

Equally fundamental to success is knowledge of books. The mental "ladder list" mentioned earlier does not come from conventional college courses in literature, important as such courses may be in developing standards of taste, or even from a few courses in library school dealing with book selection. These are merely starting points. The ladder lengthens

through a continuous program of reading in which there are no blind spots and through the constant handling of books and other reading materials. This, incidentally, is one of the happiest aspects of reading guidance. The materials are forever changing, forever new.

All the rest that might be said about the qualities of the guide may be inferred from what has gone before. If these requirements appear to be overwhelming, the young librarian may look for comfort to the old adage that Rome was not built in a day. Neither is the structure of reading guidance. Expertness grows and capabilities expand in the guide if she has a good foundation of personality, a basic knowledge of child and adolescent psychology, a long-continued habit of reading, and a sincere liking for boys and girls.

VII. WORKING WITH UNUSUAL READERS

The emphasis of the last few pages has been on working with the individual, an individual who, for purposes of rapid survey, had to be an average boy or girl, normal intellectually and emotionally. But today's reading program lays increasing stress on aiding the pupil who is not normal, the one who, for some reason or another, is either above or below average in reading ability and in desire to read.

The startling discoveries of reading disability mentioned at the beginning of this chapter have tended to center attention on the mentally retarded, the reluctant, or handicapped user of books. But the above-average young person deserves equal attention since ability to read easily and rapidly offers its own challenges and carries its own perils.

1. **The gifted reader.** In order to provide adequate guidance, the librarian must know first of all that the reader is gifted. This is peculiarly true at the adolescent stage, for here intellectual laziness may completely obscure a high intelligence rating. Reference to school records covering mental ability will therefore be helpful.

Alertness regarding the extent and diversity of the above-average pupil's reading is likewise important. Emphasis during grade school years on rapid and extensive reading may have led to an almost complete lack of the intensive and reflective variety. The young person gallops through one book after another searching for superficial thrills or acquiring superficial knowledge. He needs to be held down and required to assimilate. The librarian can do much to bring about this desirable end by conferring with teachers on the individual's reading habits and on his record as a library

borrower. Not with the air of a censorious mentor, but with the approach of a friendly observer, she may also personally challenge both the extent and the nature of his reading. On the whole, the positive approach is better than the negative. Once a motivating interest has been unearthed or unexpectedly set off by a lucky bit of library publicity or a classroom enterprise, the librarian's job is to see to it that plenty of good, solid material is supplied, not infrequently with the help of the public library. If the latter institution has a young people's room, or employs a special readers' adviser for young adults, a note of introduction from the school librarian helps.

2. **The retarded, reluctant, or handicapped reader.** In his foreword to Witty and Kopel's *Reading and the Educative Process*,²² B. R. Buckingham suggests that while there may appear to be two somewhat antagonistic schools of thought relative to the means of inducing reading growth—the school of skills and the school of interest—the distinction between them is chiefly one of emphasis. The school of skills minutely analyzes reading disabilities and seeks a remedy through appropriate drill, believing that when the pupil needs the skills he has thus mastered “he will put them together in the total reading act.” The school of interest, on the other hand, emphasizing what the pupil “likes, or admires, or wishes to become,” places in his hands reading materials which serve these interests and “relies on the drive of emotionalized effort along paths of least resistance.”

So far in considering guidance, interest has had chief emphasis. But a balanced utilization of both approaches is needed. No librarian can expect to be fully successful who remains uninterested in or ignorant of the findings of research workers in the school of skills and of the methods they have developed for the improvement of reading. This is particularly true in the case of the retarded, reluctant, or handicapped reader. Until the librarian comes to understand why a particular boy or girl does not like to read, remedial work goes on in the dark. While she may accomplish much through observation, through extracting all possible information by means of friendly chats drawing from the pupil his reasons for unfortunate reading attitudes and behavior, and through follow-up conferences with teachers, these are not enough. She needs a background of study covering the causes of reading disability and skill in applying to the immediate situation the results of such study.

²² Witty, Paul, and Kopel, David. *Reading and the Educative Process*. Ginn, 1939, preface, p.ix.

What are the more common symptoms of reading disability and the remedies to be applied?

Physical handicaps.—Physical handicaps are perhaps the ones most easily discovered. On the whole, they are not as prevalent in the secondary school as in the lower grades, possibly because poorer readers have been screened out or have made their adjustments. Nevertheless, librarians working at all levels should recognize the more obvious symptoms.

If a pupil squints, or holds the book too close to his face, it is safe to assume that an eye examination is needed, and the librarian reports accordingly to the proper school authorities. But the best of glasses and medical care are in some cases only palliatives. Search must be made for books having noticeable typographical clarity: large type, plenty of space between lines, unglazed paper.²³ Illustrations intended to clarify the text and not merely to provide decoration are also to be sought.

There are, of course, physical defects not evident to the casual observer and only to be ascertained and corrected through remedial work conducted by an expert. Beyond noting and reporting that a particular pupil gives evidence of some sort of disability through his restlessness, inattention, lip movements, unnecessary head movements, or idle flipping of pages, the librarian cannot do very much directly, but is ready with appropriate reading matter when diagnosis has been made elsewhere and remedial work is undertaken. But she may do much to keep the handicapped one from falling into an unfortunate emotional state by providing him with tasks that encourage a feeling of usefulness. He can be encouraged to function as monitor, as errand boy, or in other obvious ways that give him a sense of usefulness and that bolster his self assurance while his growth as a reader is being looked after through proper remedial techniques.

Psychological and emotional handicaps.—The symptoms noted by the librarian may indicate psychological or emotional handicaps rather than physical. Emotional strain or maladjustment may be present, or physical disability may have led to a feeling of inferiority camouflaged by a disclaimer of interest in the printed page. Reading may have unhappy asso-

²³ Helpful lists:

Matson, Charlotte, and Wurzburg, Dorothy. *Books for Tired Eyes*. 3d ed. A.L.A., 1940. (Classified list of 1800 titles for adults and for children, with indication of type size.)

University of the State of New York State Education Department. *Good Books for Bad Eyes*. The Department, v.d. (Compiled by the Physically Handicapped Childrens' Bureau and the Library Extension Division for children and young people with defective vision.)

ciations: a parent or teacher may have insisted upon the perusal of literature beyond the reader's grasp and unrelated to his mental or emotional development with the result that he very honestly hates the sight of a book. He may boast on graduation day that he got through school without reading so much as a single volume in its entirety.

In addition to creating an atmosphere in the library and a personal relationship favorable to the dissipation of such inhibitions and disabilities, the librarian consistently cooperates with counselors and instructors in finding, not only reading materials that cater to special interests, but also, books that aid in removing emotional strain by helping the pupil solve personal problems, attain a more balanced outlook on life, or, in the case of the more mature, assist him in self-analysis.

Intellectual handicaps are also to be reckoned with. Efficient reading is a highly difficult mental process involving thinking, reasoning, and general intelligence. Mental age is, therefore, much more important than physical age; and here, as before, the librarian wisely resorts to the records of the school's scientific testing program.²⁴

3. Choice of materials. The most difficult problem confronting both the librarian and the teacher in many cases of retardation is to find books and other materials sufficiently simple in literary form and vocabulary to be easily read and, at the same time, mature enough in thought and interest to engage the reader's attention.

Some notion of the factors to be considered in measuring the difficulty of reading materials may be gained from the findings of studies made preliminary to the issuance of *The Right Book for the Right Child*.²⁵ The most significant factors were found to be:

The proportion of words among the commonest 1500 in the English language

The proportion of words repeated

The proportion of single and compound sentences²⁶

²⁴ A convenient list of well-known tests appears in Witty and Kopel, op. cit. p.254-56. Age for which intended, publisher, and cost are indicated in each case.

²⁵ Washburne, C. A., and others. *The Right Book for the Right Child*. Rev. ed. John Day, 1942. (A list prepared by the Research Department of the Winnetka Public Schools in collaboration with a subcommittee of the A.L.A. Committee on Library Work with Children. Attempts scientific grading and selection.)

²⁶ A formula for grading books based on the above is discussed by C. A. Washburne and M. V. Morphet in the *Elementary School Journal* 38:355-64, January 1938. A grading chart available from the Winnetka Public Schools, Research Department, Winnetka, Illinois is mentioned.

However valuable such scientific grading may be, it by no means covers the problem. It is not enough to hand to a tenth-grade girl a book with sixth-grade vocabulary and sentence structure. She recognizes at once that it is "just a kid's book" and so rejects it without more ado. Content, style, organization, interest level and other factors must also be considered.²⁷

Fortunately there is now in existence a number of excellent lists which take into account the interests of boys and girls as well as simplicity of form and style.²⁸ They will be extremely helpful to both librarian and teacher in selecting books for purchase and in recommending books to retarded individuals.

VIII. READING RESEARCH

Frequent reference has been made to research studies. Some have been made by librarians, more by educational experts. How numerous they are is indicated by the many columns required to list them in volumes of *The Education Index*.²⁹ Few librarians would not profit from enrolling in at least one course where the findings of such studies are surveyed and evaluated; and the ambitious school librarian does well, when she has the opportunity, to go even further and enroll in a graduate course through which she may achieve some degree of proficiency in the techniques of scientific investigation to be employed when setting out in search of facts relevant to the reading situation in her own school.

To deal with such techniques, or even to survey the varied ramifications of scientific reading study is beyond the possibilities of the present volume. For more thorough coverage see volumes such as Witty and Kopel's *Read-*

²⁷ A careful summary of the factors which go to make up readability is presented by Bernice E. Leary in a chapter on "Difficulties in Reading Material" in Gray, W. S., ed. *Reading in General Education*. American Council on Education, 1940, p.272-306. It is accompanied by an excellent bibliography. A recent volume of outstanding usefulness in ascertaining what makes a book easy to understand is Flesch, Rudolf. *The Art of Plain Talk*. Harper, 1946.

²⁸ Reliable lists for retarded readers in the secondary school are not as numerous as those available for elementary pupils. Special attention is therefore called to the list compiled by Ruth M. Strang and associates appearing in the bibliography at the end of this chapter.

For bibliographies of book lists useful in remedial reading, consult the following: Heaps, W. A. *Book Selection for Secondary School Libraries*. Wilson, 1942, p.44-46. Witty and Kopel. *Op. cit.* Appendix D, IV and V, p.355-62.

²⁹ Among outstanding research workers whose names should be known to the school librarian are Arthur I. Gates, Ruth M. Strang, W. S. Gray, E. A. Betts, Dora V. Smith, Paul Witty and David Kopel.

ing and the Educative Process,³⁰ which provides a valuable critique and survey of outstanding research, and publications such as the two Yearbooks of the National Society for the Study of Education (the 36th, Pt. I, and the 42d, Pt. II).

IX. STUDYING METHODS USED BY TEACHERS

In addition to familiarizing herself with the results of research, the librarian wisely takes every opportunity to acquaint herself with the methods employed by successful reading and English teachers. It is important, even for a secondary school librarian, to know how little children learn to read. An excellent brochure for this purpose is published by the Research Division of the National Education Association.³¹ Methods used at various school levels are discussed from time to time in the research treatises previously referred to and in the many useful manuals employed in the training of teachers. In the secondary school field, the *Monographs of the National Council of Teachers of English* are extremely significant and not too technical. Some of them have already been cited. They should be known to school librarians.

X. THE SELECTION OF READING MATERIALS

The principles and methods of reading guidance discussed in this chapter should be useful in the selection of suitable materials for the school library, but at best they are only starting points. For full coverage of the problems incidental to book selection the student must look to courses in that field and to volumes dealing specifically with that subject.³²

³⁰ Witty and Kopel. *op. cit.*

³¹ National Education Association Research Division. "Better Reading Instruction." *Bulletin* 13:273-325, November 1935.

³² Wilson, L. R., ed. *The Practice of Book Selection*, Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1940, contains a useful chapter (p.226-41) by Frieda M. Heller on "Book Selection in a Modern High School."

A book specifically devoted to problems of selection at the high school level is Heaps, W. A. *Book Selection for Secondary School Libraries*. Wilson, 1942. On pages 73 and 74 of this volume will be found a bibliography of other books and articles useful in the study of book selection in the secondary school field.

At the elementary level there appears to be no one volume which covers the subject comprehensively. Dependence here is largely on scattered books and articles dealing with the approach to reading through children's interests. Perhaps the *Syllabus for the Study of the Reading Interests of Children* put out by the School of Library Service, Columbia Univ. . . . (3d ed., 1941) provides as good a basic approach as any available, though it is an outline rather than a text.

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This bibliography omits general book lists. See p.48 for outstanding titles.

THE SCHOOL READING PROGRAM—AIMS AND PROBLEMS

GRAY, W. S., ed. *Co-operative Effort in Schools to Improve Reading*. Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1942, p.20-38. (Supplementary Educational Monograph no.56)

Discussion of the broader ends to be obtained through reading in the primary grades, the middle grades, and in high schools and junior colleges.

——— *Reading in General Education . . . a Report of the Committee on Reading in General Education*. American Council on Education, 1940.

An exploratory study containing valuable chapters on factors influencing reading efficiency, on relation to other forms of learning, on interests and tastes, difficulties in reading material, diagnosis and remediation, and so on.

JUDD, C. E. "Trends in Education." In Wilson, L. R., ed. *Library Trends*. Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1937, p.105-17.

The role of reading in education. Straightforward presentation.

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION. *Twenty-fourth Yearbook, Pt. I: Report of the National Committee on Reading*. Public School Pub. Co., 1925, p.9-19.

The aims of reading instruction so well stated that later pronouncements of the Society serve primarily to add present-day interpretation and emphasis.

——— *Thirty-sixth Yearbook, Pt. I: The Teaching of Reading; a Second Report*. Public School Pub. Co., 1937.

The role of reading in the school in all its phases discussed by such experts as Gray, Goodykoontz, Snedaker, Horn, Betzner, Durrell, and Gates.

TYLER, RALPH. "The Study of Adolescent Reading by the Progressive Education Association." In Wilson, L. R., ed. *Library Trends*. Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1937, p.269-85.

Condensed statement of the findings of the Progressive Education Association.

LIBRARY FUNCTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

COULBOURN, JOHN. "The School Library as an Effective Agency in the Reading Program." In his *Administering the School Library*. Educational Publishers, 1942, p.65-72.

A secondary school principal tells what he thinks should be the functions of the library.

GRAY, W. S., ed. "Function of the Library in the Selection, Administration and Use of Reading Materials." In his *Co-operative Effort in Schools to Improve Reading*. Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1942, p.157-71. (Supplementary Educational Monograph no. 56)

Brief statements by Dorothea Dawson and B. Lamar Johnson covering the reading functions of the school library from the primary grades through high school and junior college.

HAYNER, C. I. "The School Library as a Laboratory for English Activities." *English Journal* 30:19-24, January 1941.

How a library functions as a laboratory.

HELLER, F. M., and LABRANT, L. L. *The Librarian and the Teacher of English*. A.L.A., 1938. "Experimenting Together."

Description of the ways in which teachers, librarians and pupils collaborate on reading projects.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH. *Conducting Experiences in English; Report of a Committee . . .* Angela M. Broening, Chairman. Appleton-Century, 1939. (English Monograph no. 8)

Scattered throughout Part I of this volume for English teachers are accounts of activities participated in by the library.

SHORES, LOUIS. "The School Librarian as a Reading Teacher." *Wilson Library Bulletin* 15:117-22 ff, October 1940.

Our national state of "illiterate literacy" suggests, writes Dr. Shores, that the functions of reading teacher and school librarian should become identical.

READING GUIDANCE (OLDER GROUPS)

ALEXANDER, MARGARET. "Introducing Books to Young Readers." *A.L.A. Bulletin* 32:685-90, 734, October 1, 1938.

Full of practical hints for the librarian who aspires to guide the reading of older boys and girls.

BRYAN, A. I. "The Reader as a Person." *Library Journal* 65:137-41, February 15, 1940.

A psychologist discusses the approach to readers on the basis of the four major "drives" which lead people to read.

CHANCELLOR, P. G. "Reading Program in a Preparatory School Library." *Library Journal* 63:677-80, September 15, 1938.

The boys in this school make up their own annual lists of recommended titles.

SMITH, D. V. "Helping Young People Enjoy Reading." In *Columbia School of Library Service. Papers Presented at a Conference on School Library Service*, June 28 to July 3, 1939, p.44-53.

Full of suggestions for the librarian.

READING GUIDANCE (YOUNGER GROUPS)

DUFF, ANNIS. *Bequest of Wings*. Viking, 1944.

A mother writes of a family's pleasures with books. Excellent for the librarian as well as for mothers in the home.

EATON, A. T. *Reading with Children*. Viking, 1940.

A librarian who has guided the reading of many children writes with rare understanding of the books they love.

GARDINER, JEWEL, and BAISDEN, L. B. Administering Library Service in the Elementary School. A.L.A., 1941, p.121-39.

UNUSUAL READERS — GIFTED AND RETARDED

CENTER, S. S., and PERSONS, G. L. Teaching High School Students to Read. Appleton-Century, 1937. (National Council of Teachers of English Monograph no. 6)

How two reading experts worked to increase the reading ability of some four hundred retarded readers, and the results they obtained.

CORNELL, E. L. "Can Librarians Help Unusual Readers?" *A.L.A. Bulletin* 35: 160-65, March 1941.

Case studies of low and high IQ high school pupils, showing individual differences in each group and the general need for guidance.

—— "The Voluntary Reading of High School Pupils." *A.L.A. Bulletin* 35:295-300, May 1941.

Case studies on the reading of above-average pupils.

GATES, A. I. "Diagnosis and Treatment of Extreme Cases of Reading Disability." In National Society for the Study of Education. Thirty-sixth Yearbook: The Teaching of Reading. Public School Pub. Co., 1937, p.391-416. Practices of the specialist are summarized for the nonspecialist. Many references to further sources of information.

STRANG, R. M. "Diagnosis and Remediation." In Gray, W. S., ed. Reading in General Education. American Council on Education, 1940, p.307-56.

With special reference to the secondary school. Excellent brief summary of procedures for the identification and correction of reading deficiencies. Comprehensive bibliography.

WITTY, PAUL, and KOPEL, DAVID. Reading and the Educative Process. Ginn, 1939.

Chapters on Interest as a Factor in Reading, Identifying the Poor Reader, Remedial Reading in the Secondary School, and The Causation and Analysis of Reading Difficulties are full of information useful to the librarian.

BOOK LISTS FOR RETARDED READERS

(See also lists for children with defective eyesight, p.54, note)

BLAIR, G. M. "One Hundred Books Most Enjoyed by Retarded Readers in Senior High School." *English Journal* 30:42-7, January 1941.

"Based on reports from 217 schools in 35 states."

CARPENTER, H. M. Gateways to American History. Wilson, 1942.

"Provides criteria for judging books for slow learners and recommends and analyzes more than two hundred books of historical fiction, biography and other informative literature."

CALIFORNIA SCHOOL LIBRARY ASSOCIATION. Section for Work with Boys and Girls. Choosing the Right Book. 1938. (Reprinted from *Elementary English Review* 16:21-23, January 1939.)

A list of books for retarded younger readers.

STRANG, R. M., and others. Gateways to Readable Books. Wilson, 1945.

"An annotated, graded list of books in many fields for adolescents who find reading difficult." Probably the best list to date.

READING INTERESTS

ANDERSON, H. A. "Reading Interests and Tastes." In Gray, W. S., ed. Reading in General Education. American Council on Education, 1940, p.217-71.

A survey of studies in this field, accompanied by a useful bibliography.

BETZNER, JEAN, and LYMAN, R. L. "The Development of Reading Interests and Tastes." In National Society for the Study of Education. Thirty-sixth Yearbook, Pt. I: The Teaching of Reading. Public School Pub. Co., 1937, p.185-91.

"This chapter considers the development of interests and tastes primarily as a problem of the literature and free reading periods of the English classroom and the library."

TERMAN, L. M., and LIMA, MARGARET. Children's Reading. 2d ed. Appleton, 1931.

The introductory chapters provide a useful summary of the interests of children. Out of date as a buying list.

NOTE: This brief list may be supplemented at any time by references to the *Education Index* which will reveal many current articles dealing with the reading interests of boys and girls.

A Center for Information and Fact-Finding

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I. DEFINITION OF REFERENCE WORK

Reference work has been said to be "direct" or "sympathetic and informal personal aid in interpreting library collections for study and research."¹ This obviously defines the reference function of the library from the librarian's viewpoint, but the same activity has a somewhat different aspect when defined from the student's viewpoint. Given a reference assignment, he goes to the library to "do" reference. For him, reference work is a process involving fact-finding and problem solving on his own with the use of the tools the library affords.

¹ Wyer, J. I. *Reference Work*. A.L.A., 1930, p.4.

II. TYPES OF WORK WITH PUPILS

Operating as a center for information, fact-finding and investigation, the school library deals with both instructors and pupils, but far more with the latter. This is not wholly as it should be, and there is currently a trend in the other direction, for preliminary work with the instructor is responsible for a very large share of all purposeful curricular investigation and fact-finding carried on by pupils. Obviously, it will be necessary to consider both aspects, but we shall take up pupil activities first.

1. **The questions pupils ask.** Pupils' questions give some notion of the fields which the library must be prepared to cover through the use of its informational resources. Unfortunately no sufficiently extensive compilation of questions is available on which to base accurate generalizations. Inevitably, much depends on the nature of the curriculum and the resources of the individual library. But significant clues are furnished in a study made by Davis.² On the basis of records kept in her own library over a period of two years, this school librarian found that questions fall into the following categories: (a) ready reference—"common to the adolescent who needs the answer for his next class in about five minutes"; (b) the "material finding" question which calls for "information for a special topic, collateral reading, or a report"; (c) the search question—least common, and "calling for a more detailed knowledge than either of the other two plus a frequent necessity for choosing one authority or another."

On the basis of motivation; the same author classifies 1616 questions asked as:

Type I. Based on definite class assignments	73.89 per cent
Type II. Motivated by class discussion	7.42 per cent
Type III. Based on personal interests not connected with class work	9.16 per cent
Type IV. Based on personal reading exclusive of assignments	6.74 per cent
Type V. Based on extracurricular activities such as school newspaper, debating, sports, etc.	2.78 per cent

The heavy preponderance of questions based on class assignments is not surprising, nor are the low percentages in other fields, although, as

² Davis, M. L. *Reference Questions in a Senior High School Library*. Columbia University School of Library Service, 1942, p.11, and Appendix D, p.43-47. (Mimeographed thesis.)

Davis is careful to point out, the figures arrived at through her study should not be misconstrued as universal norms. They represent findings in one school only, in which crowded conditions resulting in restricted library attendance, lack of time on the part of students partly because of war work, and other modifying circumstances undoubtedly exerted considerable influence. Inadequacy of the book collection was apparently not a qualifying factor. In this school, as elsewhere, a potent influence was undoubtedly the active and intelligent interest of certain instructors—or their lack of interest. This is suggested by the circumstance that although enrollment was similar in music and art, the ratio of questions was nine to one in favor of music; and that in home economics three times as many questions were asked as in foreign languages, again departments of about equal size. Another factor not overlooked in the study is that, in a school where pupils have been instructed in methods of reference self-service, many questions are answered without ever coming to the attention of the librarian. For this reason, figures may be misleading when, as in the present case, they show that the number of questions asked by pupils of average intelligence is above the number asked by superior pupils. The correct interpretation of such findings may be that better students tend to look after themselves and so remain off the record.

All factors influencing the use of the library as an information and fact-finding center are matters of importance in any school and should be subjected to careful investigation. For example, if there are few questions growing out of class discussion the principal or the supervisor is likely to be interested. If the low percentage of questions related to school activities and to personal interests is the result of restrictions on attendance, then better means of regulating attendance should be considered. Analysis of questions also raises budgetary problems. Shall departmental allowances for reference materials be increased in proportion to use, or shall money be spent to improve resources at present little used in the hope that, with better materials on the shelves, and *better publicity*, reference work may be made to grow? The balance is often delicate, and a preliminary study of the curriculum, as well as conferences with principal and department heads, is obviously needed.³

2. Curriculum-centered reference activity. Since the questions and reference problems which pupils bring to the library are so largely motivated

³ Cf., Budgeting, in Chapter XI.

by the curriculum, it is important to consider the methods employed by the instructional staff in bringing about such activity.⁴

Parallel or collateral reading assignments.—"Assigned reading" is not infrequently spoken of as reference work although there is little in such activity of a reference nature aside from the labor of teacher and librarian in locating and deciding upon selections to be read. The use of printed matter in this way, write Snedaker and Horn,⁵ is principally a "means of building the rich background of meaningful concepts that make possible the re-creation of experience." In the secondary school, collateral readings may also be assigned to bring out varying points of view and to develop the habit of critical evaluation.

Among the advantages claimed for this type of assignment is its definiteness. The pupil wastes no time searching for material, nor runs the risk of happening upon less desirable books or those unsuited to his mental development.

Subject assignments.—Subject assignments may be either group or individual. The instructor announces a list of topics for extensive investigation or indicates from day to day such lesser topics as may quickly be looked into and reported on. In being able to select from a list that topic which most appeals, the individual pupil is more apt to be interested than when there is no choice. Preferably, sources of information are not too definitely indicated by the instructor, though before the pupil goes to the library attention should be called to helpful bibliographies, indexes and other useful tools. Beyond that, the success of such assignments depends on the extent to which the pupil already knows how to use the library and on the guidance furnished by the librarian when he arrives.

Previous consultation between instructor and librarian and careful examination of available resources is essential if pupils are not to be frustrated by finding the library unprepared to meet their needs. Incidentally, such preparatory work tends to open fields for investigation of which the instructor may not initially have thought. It also brings to light unsuspected materials.

The subject assignment has many advantages. Spreading demand obviates the necessity for heavy duplication, encourages laboratory use of library

⁴ Alexander, Carter. "Blind Spots in Using Library Materials." *Teachers College Record* 38:405-15, February 1937.

⁵ Snedaker, Mable, and Horn, Ernest. "Reading in the Various Fields of the Curriculum." In National Society for the Study of Education. *Thirty-sixth Yearbook, Pt. I: The Teaching of Reading*. Public School Pub. Co., 1937, p.143.

resources, and enables librarian and teacher to consider individual differences among pupils.

Problems, projects and activities.—Each unit of a genuinely modern curriculum calls for what may be designated as creative self-activity on the part of pupils. Included in the textbook or syllabus are questions requiring fact-finding or investigation and suggestions for projects.

Often the instructor creates a situation where questions arise and problems appear. Soon the individual pupil or the class discovers an area of knowledge into which it would apparently be interesting to pry, or an enterprise worth undertaking, or both. Plans are laid, the library is visited in a preliminary search for materials, or the librarian is invited to talk to the class about library resources and how to use them.

From then on the purposeful use of reference materials grows apace. Eaton⁶ has told of a sixth-grade enterprise called "How Man Recorded His Activities," which requisitioned for reference service nearly sixty books with titles ranging from Baikie's *Ancient Egypt* to Kipling's *Just So Stories*. In a recent high school science class a unit on light led to a group activity dealing with street lighting. Before it was completed students had been in the library searching for data dealing not alone with lighting engineering, but with the artistic aspects of lighting, the relation of lighting to crime and to accidents, and other phases of the subject including lighting problems in their own home town. Even a kindergarten class may have its reference project. It was in Evanston, Illinois, that a group engaged in making a "Zoo" came upon the problem of the porcupine's quills. Did they point forward, upward, or backward? A trip to the library and an exciting search through picture books finally provided the answer to this weighty question.

Unplanned curricular reference.—To the library should come many totally unforeseen reference questions arising spontaneously out of class activity. As an example there may be cited the query of a boy who had learned that it was the function of the sheriff to arrest all law-breakers. But who arrests the sheriff when *he* goes wrong? was the question propounded, and that brought the questioner hurriedly to the library.⁷

The variety and number of unexpected questions searched in the library

⁶ Eaton, A. T. "Classroom Activities and the School Library." In American Library Association Education Committee. *School Library Yearbook Number Two*. A.L.A., 1928, p.140-47. Also in Wilson, Martha. *School Library Experience*; 2d series. Wilson, 1932, p.211-19. (Reprinted from National Education Association Elementary School Principals. *Sixth Yearbook*. The Association, 1927, p.264-70.)

⁷ Davis, *op. cit.*

is highly indicative of the impression that institution has made on the school. Or to put it another way, it is indicative of the extent to which students and teachers are library conscious and of the alertness of the latter to seize upon opportunities for encouraging pupil exploration.

3. **Extracurricular reference for pupils.** Although first attention is given in the school to work centered in the curriculum, there are wide fields for reference work outside the curriculum that are not always as well developed as they deserve. Among them are sports, the school newspaper, and so on. There are also the fields of pupils' personal interests, problems, and hobbies with self-initiated exploration. A tenth grader may be failing in English or history while completely fascinated with the construction of his own version of an automobile or helicopter. He will go to any length to secure essential information, delving into technical periodicals, scientific treatises, engineering manuals or whatever else is available. While the urge to be an automobile or aviation engineer lasts, he is getting an education in his own way and perhaps through the only channels that appeal to him for the time being. He needs guidance into wider fields of learning, but meantime the school library can and should help make the present hobby contribute to intellectual growth. It is likely that not nearly all the information he needs can be had through the school's limited resources. But starting there, he can be guided to the wider resources of other library agencies available to him. If he goes to the public library, it will be helpful if he is equipped with a note of introduction or a list of references already culled from special indexes available in the school.

Extracurricular reference service is wisely extended to organizations and groups not sponsored by the school but carrying on in the interest of spiritual, recreational, and personal development for youth. Many such organizations have well-developed activity programs. Siebens and Bartlett, in their *Librarian and the Teacher of Science*,⁸ tell how a Girl Scout worked on a collection of sea shells as a project for her nature badge:

She arranged them methodically in a cabinet, each shell with its scientific name. As an added interest, she investigated the English meanings of the Latin names and thereby increased her knowledge of words. Identification was made from Roger's *Shell Book* obtained from the library. The completion of the project involved the Scouts, the library, and the science and Latin departments.

⁸ Siebens, C. R., and Bartlett, W. L. *The Librarian and the Teacher of Science*. A.L.A., 1942, p.23. "Experimenting Together."

The use of library indexes to find poems, plays, and other program materials is a form of reference work wisely encouraged, and good volumes on parties, games and etiquette encourage a growing student appreciation of libraries as sources of aid in the affairs of everyday life.

There need be no serious problem as to the proper division of labor between public library and school library in these extracurricular calls. If a school exists in a locality where there is no public library, the school's provision for such services will necessarily be more generous than otherwise. But even the best of school collections are never sufficiently extensive to cover all the undertakings in which boys and girls engage. On the other hand, the school has an immediacy that encourages many requests which would never reach an external agency but which may be referred to the outside agency when school resources fail. It is common experience that the better and more extensively the school library functions, the larger are the reference demands on the public library. The spirit of investigation once developed in youth overflows in all directions, sometimes even to the consternation of a public library which sees its services to adults seriously menaced.

III. AIMS AND APPROACH IN WORK WITH PUPILS

1. **Aims.** Bearing in mind that the school library is vitally concerned with pupil growth, it is evident that the most important aim in reference work is one included in the general aims for the library: *to encourage the habit of personal investigation*. Consistently, the librarian is to function as a coach⁹ and guide. The game belongs to the pupil. Of course there are occasions when the student, hard-pressed for time, bumps into a situation that he knows can quickly be cleared by the librarian in answer to a hurried question, and he feels he is entitled to the answer. In such emergencies the librarian does not quibble over handing out the information desired. Unless the questioner turns out to be an individual perpetually in a state of emergency because of procrastination or intellectual laziness, she knows that being generous with aid on occasion helps materially in establishing that confidence and good feeling which strengthens her hand when she urges him to do for himself.

2. **The library as a laboratory.** As in the case of reading, the librarian who looks upon the library as a laboratory is on the right track. Spread

⁹ Fargo, L. F. "Seventeen and the Reference Librarian." In Wilson, Martha. *School Library Experience*. Wilson, 1925, p.42-50.

about the pupil investigator are bibliographic tools and equipment essential to fact-finding and to the solving of problems. He may use any or all, learning by experience which items are most useful for his purposes; which ones are time savers; which can be depended upon because they are authoritative; which give biased or one-sided information; which are of service to the advanced learner only; which to the amateur or the hobby-rider. He learns to be discriminating in his acceptance of information appearing in printed form. With the help of the librarian he hits upon unexpected sources of knowledge and learns how to extract kernels of fact from surrounding chaff. As in the physics or chemistry laboratory, he develops a scientific attitude.

This is the ideal. Democracy needs citizens who can tackle problems under their own steam, get at the facts, and exercise discriminating judgment in interpreting them. To the extent that reference work in the school library operates on laboratory principles it helps to produce such citizens.

Even if the educational methods of the school do not on the whole encourage the use of the library as a practice laboratory, the librarian can still accomplish a good deal through her personal attitude and approach. To her, running down the answer to a reference problem should have the earmarks of an absorbing indoor sport. But the pupil may have no similar enthusiasm when he arrives at the library. He has a "reference assignment" and is far from keen about it. What school librarian has not caught a look of pained surprise when, acknowledging that the assignment looks difficult and confessing ignorance not only of the subject but of the place where it may be found, she has gathered up pencil and pad with a cheery invitation to teamwork that cannot be sidestepped. Such tactics put a new face on reference activity that the pupil quickly senses.

3. **The need for instruction.** Conducting reference activity on the laboratory plan necessarily presupposes adequate instruction covering the bibliographic tools and equipment available for use by the inquiring pupil—either in advance of his appearance in the library in connection with a specific unit of learning, or as a part of the unit itself. The methods, nature and content of basic instruction are discussed in Chapter V, but it may be noted here that, as a follow-up of instruction and ensuing search for materials on the part of the pupil, it is customary in some classes to require a report not only on the information unearthed, but on the steps taken to find it. It should also be noted that in the library itself reference procedures must be kept in line with what has or has not been taught. A

pupil is not directed to the card catalog or the *Readers' Guide* unless the librarian is reasonably sure that instruction covering the use of these tools has been given. Even then she watches what happens when the pupil approaches the tool recommended, for some measure of personal guidance may still be necessary.

4. *Ascertaining what the pupil wants.* Every writer on the reference aspects of library service points out the importance of being perfectly sure of what the questioner wants before attempting to offer advice or help. Preliminary planning of reference activity on the part of librarian and instructor is invaluable here, as is also that knowledge of what is going on in the school which comes from daily contacts with pupils and staff. But these are not enough. Pupils often confuse assignments, get names, dates, and terminology twisted, or are utterly vague. Censorious attitudes on the part of the librarian are not only disconcerting to the pupil, but discouraging, and make for future reticence. To this it may be added that if a pupil's questions show him to be continuously confused, that fact should be reported to the instructor.

Talking over a problem is frequently better than questioning the questioner. Unconsciously, questioning may serve to make the inquiring pupil ashamed of his ignorance or shy about explaining his needs. Perhaps the reason he cannot make himself clear is because he does not know what he wants or, at least, does not know how to state his needs.

Just when to offer help is sometimes a perplexing problem, since assistance should never be forced upon a pupil. Wyer has suggested¹⁰ that although there are no sure signs of help needed, the practiced librarian will infallibly detect them, "even in the proud and confident person who fearlessly tackles the card catalog. As his operations slow down, assurance disappears, a vague uncertain look steals into the face, the watcher will shortly recognize the psychologic moment to intervene with 'are you finding what you want?'"

5. *Adapting aid to ability.* As with reading guidance, the pupil's intellectual maturity and reading ability must be considered in reference work. Much can be done through annotations in the card catalog and on bibliographies indicating whether titles are technical or nontechnical, easy to read or difficult, brief or comprehensive. But continuously supplementing these devices is the librarian's personal knowledge of both books and readers. The most authoritative treatise on a subject is frequently not

¹⁰ Wyer, *op. cit.*, p.99.

the one to recommend. Assuming a reasonable degree of accuracy and fair-mindedness on the part of the author, bear in mind that the best book for the learner is the one he can best understand.

IV. WORK WITH FACULTY, ADMINISTRATORS, AND GENERAL PUBLIC

1. **Faculty and administrators.** Quite aside from the curriculum, all members of the school staff, including supervisory and administrative officers, are entitled to the best reference service the library can give. Many calls for reading materials, statistical data, and other factual information come from administrative officers busy on addresses, reports, and community enterprises, and from faculty committees drawing up school programs or engaged in research. Such workers should be generously assisted, books or data being made available where most convenient. Individual faculty members may be engaged in research or in carrying on programs of study or personal improvement, others may be hobby riders. An alert librarian helps them all as much as possible. In cases where the resources of the school library are inadequate, she arranges for interlibrary loans or calls, perhaps by phone, upon outside agencies for other types of help. Not only that, but, for the benefit of the principal or staff, the librarian may herself visit the reference room of the nearest library in order to consult indexes and bibliographical tools not available in the school. The longer the librarian remains a member of a school staff, the more valuable become such services since with time her knowledge of faculty needs and library resources grows.

How large a collection of educational reference materials designed specifically for faculty use should be built up in the school library depends largely on circumstances. The matter is discussed later in connection with the nature of the book collection as a whole. (Chapter VIII).

2. **The general public.** As the informational facilities and functions of the school library expand, the question of service to the general public arises.

In a situation where the general public and the school occupy common library quarters located in the school building, reference service to adults is taken for granted because by the very terms of the joint arrangement the library functions for both groups impartially. However, these situations are comparatively rare. In the vast majority of cases the school library exists as a unit devoted primarily to carrying out the program of the school and

limitations are necessarily placed on service to outsiders except in cases where the functioning of the library as an informational center for adults has a direct bearing on the many-sided development of pupils. The school librarian encourages questions from parents concerning the reliability of reference sets under consideration for the home library. But a request from the program chairman of the local Women's Club for an up-to-the-minute bibliography on the losses to French art through World War II is something else—an activity which should be referred to the public library if there is one; if not, to the county or state library agency.

V. BIBLIOGRAPHIC WORK

Aside from oral aid and advice given to pupils as they come to the library there is probably no phase of reference activity which occupies more of the librarian's time and attention than the preparation of bibliographies. This is true whether she performs the major portion of bibliographic work herself, whether she works cooperatively with instructors, whether she supervises list making on the part of pupils, or whether, as is desirable, she does all three.

1. *Techniques.* While it may be assumed that in special courses in bibliography or reference the prospective school librarian will learn the basic techniques of list making,¹¹ there are certain considerations peculiar to the school to which it is important to draw attention.

Pointers from the educational field.—In the course of a discussion of reference work and collateral reading, Snedaker and Horn suggest¹² that while the selection of reference materials for school use is presumably governed by such criteria as authenticity, clearness, interesting style, pertinence to the learning unit, excellent index, and satisfactory physical characteristics, teachers are often annoyed by finding that many references in textbook bibliographies contain so little that relates to the subject in hand that they are of limited usefulness. References may also be out of date, offer no indication of the comparative reading difficulty of the titles recommended, and carry no helpful annotations.

In view of such shortcomings, these authors suggest that certain points

¹¹ A useful manual for the librarian is: Higgins, M. V. *Beginner's Guide to the Making, Evaluation and Use of Bibliographies*. Wilson, 1938. (A revision of Martha Conner's *Practical Bibliography-making*.)

Helpful information for pupils may be found in textbooks and manuals of instruction in the use of books and libraries designed for the upper grades. See bibliography, p.98.

¹² Snedaker and Horn, *op. cit.*, p.144-48.

should always be borne in mind in compiling a bibliography for use by boys and girls, namely, that the list should be selective rather than extensive; that reading difficulty should be indicated by some simple method; and that a topical arrangement of titles is often desirable. Other characteristics of good school bibliographies are: Simple form of entry—author's name, brief title, edition only if important, paging where necessary; omission of date, place and publisher, the first because presumably only up-to-date titles will be listed, the other items because not needed for identification; call numbers to be added to facilitate finding the book on the shelves; brief, clear-cut annotations designed to arouse interest or to help the pupil evaluate the title for his particular purposes.

Since a book of fiction may, if true to human experience, be more valuable in bringing about understanding of places and periods than purely factual or encyclopedic accounts, there will probably be general agreement with Snedaker and Horn that fiction titles may sometimes be used for reference purposes. But the pupil should be warned that if he is using a bibliography to assemble authentic information in answer to a specific question he should turn to more bona fide reference sources. He must understand too that an author's bias may result in a twisted emphasis or that a wrong impression may be gained from an incomplete picture. All of which suggests that the use of bibliographies by pupils may become an activity encouraging balanced and discerning judgment.

2. **Typing and filing.** As a measure of administrative efficiency, bibliographies should whenever possible be typed, duplicates being made for the instructor; for the school library desk; for posting; and where important, for the reference department of the public library; and for filing—the last because study units have a decided tendency to recur. Each list should bear the date of compilation so that material may be added from year to year without going over sources already culled. A subject arrangement of lists in loose-leaf notebooks or in the vertical file is most desirable. To meet the situation created when sixty to one hundred pupils arrive in the library within five minutes and begin searching for books, many schools insert in pamphlet binders duplicate copies of bibliographies on topics much in demand, placing such lists where they may be readily consulted. This expedites reference activity and cuts down wear and tear on the catalog.

3. **Course syllabi.** It is the custom in many schools for instructors to prepare very complete course syllabi. If in such syllabi repeated reference

is made to a limited number of selected sources, bibliographic problems are so few as to be easily handled by the instructor with little help from the library. But where reference must be made to varied sources, especially in newer fields of study, the librarian's knowledge of sources makes her an invaluable assistant not only on the bibliographic side but in unearthing required information. She can therefore play an important part in the preparation of such syllabi.

A syllabus usually includes lists of materials for background reading and for carrying out activities. Here again teamwork on the part of instructor and librarian is imperative. All material should be jointly examined and evaluated from the point of view of usefulness, authoritativeness, educational values, recency and availability. Such teamwork brings into focus library materials which might not otherwise be considered and does away with unnecessary duplication. Suggestions for activities and projects are planned in line with present or obtainable library resources, and because of her preview the librarian becomes a more efficient guide and counselor when the syllabus comes into use.

4. **Bibliographic activities of pupils.** Pupils should be encouraged to carry on bibliographic work for themselves. But it should be kept in mind that the educational value of such activity is much enhanced if list making is motivated by a recognized need and carried out under the direct guidance of the teacher and librarian. It should also be clearly realized that bibliography making by pupils is never a substitute for the expert work of the librarian whose judgment, experience, and special knowledge produce not merely a list, but a selective and authoritative list.

In order to do satisfactory bibliographic work, pupils must have had preliminary instruction. Sometimes individuals or groups may work with the librarian. Thus, in a journalism class where pupils were confronted with a series of learning situations in which the textbook was inadequate, successive couples acted as bibliographers for the class, making weekly reading lists under the guidance of the librarian.

VI. OTHER AIDS TO REFERENCE WORK

1. **Indexing.** Closely allied to the making of bibliographies is indexing. How much shall be done is often a vexatious problem, for such work takes time. Adequate analytical entries in the card catalog under subject tend to decrease the necessity for special indexes. A growing volume of printed indexes to historical tales, plays, songs, audio-visual materials, short stories,

vocational information and the like is reducing the necessity for duplicate effort on the part of the librarian. Not to buy such tools with a generous hand is false economy. Obviously, the value of a printed index is in proportion to the number of indexed titles available. In the long run, a special index should be started and maintained by the library only after the librarian has made sure that essential entries are so numerous or so detailed as to be unsuited for the card catalog; that there is in existence no printed index which covers the field; or that the subject headings in such printed indexes are too far removed from the terminology and approach of the curriculum to be of much use. In view of the appearance of publications such as Eloise Rue's subject indexes¹³ the need for duplicate projects in the local school library is dubious. It will probably be better to check these printed indexes for titles available through the library, adding call numbers and inserting additional references not included by the original compiler. This, by the way, is an effective way to treat any printed index.

2. **Cataloging.** Adequate cataloging is a vitally important item in all reference activity. By an adequate catalog is meant one sufficiently accurate and simple in form to insure that boys and girls are not discouraged in trying to use it, and so up to date and complete in scope as to justify the faith in its wide serviceability growing out of their instruction in its use. Points of difference between the school library catalog and the catalog intended for use by the general public are covered in Chapter XII. It is sufficient at this point merely to stress the value of frequent analytics and cross references. The better the catalog, the less the work of the librarian in locating, or helping pupils to locate, wanted information.

3. **Adequate, well-organized resources.** The meaning of "adequate" will be discussed in connection with consideration of the library collection as a whole in Chapter VIII. It should be noted here, however, that the library does well to be cautious about buying too many expensive and highly specialized reference volumes. It should depend rather on reliable factual literature written for the lay reader and so analyzed in the card catalog and special indexes as to facilitate the discovery of wanted information. Indexing and cataloging are obviously vital. Boxes of unclassified pamphlets, piles of periodicals to which there is no key, and shelves sag-

¹³ Rue, Eloise. *Subject Index to Readers*. A.L.A., 1938.

——— *Subject Index to Books for Intermediate Grades*. A.L.A., 1940; *First Supplement*. 1943.

——— *Subject Index to Books for Primary Grades*. A.L.A., 1943; *First Supplement* 1946.

ging with an unorganized, uncataloged collection of books, no matter how good, do not constitute an effective reference center.

4. **Physical arrangements.** Most libraries segregate certain ready reference titles, designating them as "R" books. Among them are year-books, almanacs, quotation books, atlases, encyclopedias, and handbooks in special subject fields. Adequate physical provision for these volumes, many of them oversize, should be thought out with care when the library is being planned. In a small library where many kinds of work are of necessity centered at one desk, the "R" collection, with the possible exception of encyclopedias and dictionaries which pupils ought to be able to use with a minimum of supervision, should be located near the librarian's desk in order to avoid unnecessary steps. In a larger library, with more than one desk for staff use, a location removed from the circulation center is desirable for the "R" collection in order to avoid congestion. Sometimes "R" books are accommodated on shelving of counter height on the top of which heavy volumes may be conveniently consulted while pupils remain standing. If such equipment is not practicable, at least one table near the "R" collection should be reserved for reference workers. Pupils should be trained to consult the books there and either to leave them on the table or to return them to the shelves. To have these books scattered about the room is a waste of time for everyone. Ingenious devices are used for protecting and keeping dictionaries in place. One is a small revolving holder which supports the volume at a comfortable angle and renders it easy of access from either side of the table on which the holder rests. Another device consists in bolting the covers of the open unabridged dictionary to the top of a convenient ledge or counter, or attaching them by means of tapes.

From the point of view of a reference center, the catalog and vertical files must also be conveniently located for the librarian, and readily accessible from whatever desk she chiefly operates. When it comes to periodical indexes, two or three desiderata sometimes conflict. It is handy to have the indexes near the reference desk, preferably on a special table or counter provided with pigeonholes for keeping them in order. On the other hand, it is desirable to locate them close to back numbers of magazines. To achieve both these purposes may not be physically possible. But the constant running back and forth, inevitable when back numbers are stored in closets or on shelves removed from the main reference center, is not only undesirable from the viewpoint of physical inconvenience, but tends to

cut down use. Some libraries meet the problem by use of pupil assistants stationed in the storage room to locate needed magazines and to return them to their places.¹⁴

5. **Records of questions searched.** It is well worth while to keep a simple card file (sometimes known as a fugitive information file) in which librarian and staff note, under subject, sources of information on questions that have presented unusual difficulties or which are likely to recur whenever a class reaches a particular point in text or syllabus. To avoid waste of time, entries should be simple and informal, quite likely made in pencil, since this is not a permanent record but a file of handy notations frequently weeded.

6. **Assignment notification forms.** The well-organized school library provides instructors with a simple form through which they may keep the librarian informed concerning coming reference activities. (See ex-

BOOKLAND HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARY
ADVANCE NOTICE OF REFERENCE ACTIVITIES

Date.....19.....

To the Librarian:

.....pupils in my class in.....

will need material on.....

.....

from..... to.....

Please (a) place the following on reserve; or (b) send to my classroom. (Indicate which).

.....

.....

.....

.....

Teacher

¹⁴ See Chapter X for suggestions as to the design of special reference equipment mentioned in the last few paragraphs. See also photographs and drawings included in the catalogs of library supply firms.

ample shown.) When such notices are used consistently by instructors, and far enough in advance, reference work goes far more smoothly than otherwise. A sample form may be posted on the office bulletin board accompanied by explanatory notes calling attention to the desirability of its use and indicating how copies may be secured. Occasional follow-ups by principal or librarian in faculty meetings, or by the principal through his bulletin, help greatly. When the forms are returned, the librarian is meticulous in seeing that requests made through them are met in every way consistent with well-balanced service to the school as a whole. The forms may also be used in notifying the reference department at the public library of calls likely to come its way. Reciprocally, the public library reference librarian is usually glad to keep the school librarian informed concerning new resources available and problems of common concern arising out of the use of reference materials by the school.

VII. SPECIAL RESERVES

As explained in Chapter XIV, it is good practice in a library to maintain a "reserve collection"; that is, to set aside a block of shelving where all books on reserve may be segregated and, if necessary, be presided over by a pupil assistant. A quite different plan consists in assigning scattered shelves to individual instructors. On these are placed the volumes reserved for use in particular classes. While situations may arise where this "island" arrangement of volumes in demand for reference purposes is desirable, it is a practice easily abused and leading to confusion. Instead of applying at one easily remembered spot for all reserves, the pupil may have to visit several in the course of a day, confusedly trying to remember which shelf belongs to Mr. A's class and which to Miss B's. If he is in neither class, he fails to find the book although he has taken pains to ascertain the call number from the catalog. Librarian and desk assistants must also try to remember where particular volumes have been shelved after being removed from their usual classified positions. In the case of "R" (ready reference) volumes, removal to unwonted locations is particularly disastrous since they are in demand from many quarters and are already on permanent reserve.

Under all conditions care should be exercised by teachers and librarians alike to see that books are not placed on reserve indiscriminately and for periods of time longer than a heavy demand for them exists. Pupils trained in the use of the catalog readily find what they need if books are left in

their usual places. It is only when demand is unusually heavy or duplicates are lacking that the need for special reserves arises.

VIII. STAFF

It is not usual in the school library to designate an individual staff member as reference librarian. Rather, whoever is scheduled for floor work looks after personal reference service. In the smaller library reference work is carried along with other duties by the librarian.

Occasionally, pupils participate in reference service to their schoolmates. The number of such instances is probably not large, and most certainly they occur in schools offering a maximum of instruction in library use or where there is a well-trained group of student assistants. The pupil aides are usually upperclassmen who carry on activities delegated to them by the librarian such as helping younger or backward learners with routine questions or trying their hand at more involved problems under direct supervision. In one school a small box is a repository for reference questions arising in the library which in the judgment of the librarian can be handled by members of her group of assistants.

Commenting on such procedures, Henne¹⁵ emphasizes the desirability of having all problems come first to the librarian, and of her making the assignment and checking on the work performed. Pupils enjoy being reference assistants. The work is challenging, develops attitudes of helpfulness, and is highly educational. Moreover, as Miss Henne notes, a student often has keener insight into the problems of another than does the librarian who is further removed from the student level of experience.

IX. COOPERATION WITH EXTERNAL AGENCIES

1. **Public libraries.** The values in close cooperation between school and public libraries have been set forth and methods indicated. In the case of loans made by the public library for school purposes it is important to weigh the relative desirability of lending directly to faculty members and lending through the school library. Perhaps both arrangements should be possible, but on the whole it would appear to be best to channel through the school library materials intended for class use. To do so relieves the instructor of personal responsibility and checking and keeps the school librarian in better touch with materials in demand. It also protects the

¹⁵ Henne, Frances. "The Reference Function in the School Library." In Butler, Pierce, ed. *The Reference Function of the Library*. Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1943, p.68-69.

public library from being called upon to furnish items when their availability in the school library has not been adequately ascertained by the instructor. Conference between school and public librarian should result in regulations which can be passed on to faculty members by way of library bulletins or general announcements.

Where school libraries operate as branches of the public library, arrangements for the flow of reference materials between the two may be simpler than in other situations, owing partly to the provisions made for regular deliveries. Public libraries, however, are as a rule generous in their attitude towards schools, even when the libraries are operated independently, and are ready to arrange for loans in such quantities and under such provisions for care and delivery as may be mutually agreed upon.

2. **State library agencies.** As will appear later, agencies such as state libraries, state traveling libraries, school library divisions of state education departments, and extension or visual aids divisions of state universities may be called upon for reference materials to meet special demands. It goes without saying that undue dependence upon such services is unwise, and may be improper; unwise because no service so far removed can ever be adequate to meet the day-by-day demands of the school; improper if the borrowing library is capable of itself supplying adequate reference materials. State services are on the whole intended to supplement rather than to take the place of local services and to supply the needs of small, isolated school units unable to finance adequate libraries.

3. **Other agencies.** Among agencies external to the school on which the library may call for aid in supplementing its reference resources are museums and audio-visual centers. It is common practice nowadays for art museums to lend slides as well as exhibits. While it is probable that at present most such loans are made directly to instructors or school administrative officers, there is good reason to think that the library might well be made the clearinghouse for all such loans, as is now often the case where audio-visual materials are supplied from audio-visual centers. Such channeling may mean better integrated service all along the line.

X. KNOWING AND PUBLICIZING RESOURCES

There may be other agencies, local or state, in addition to those already mentioned to which the librarian in any given community should turn for aid in developing the effectiveness of the school library as a center for information and fact-finding. Consequently one of her first duties, and a

continuing one, is to become familiar with such agencies through correspondence, visits, and conferences.

Another duty is to publicize thoroughly the reference resources and services of the library. The school paper, the principal's bulletin, office and library bulletin boards and other means of publicity mentioned in connection with reading guidance are utilized. Holding a general faculty or departmental meeting in the library, preferably at the beginning of the year when recently arrived instructors are in the process of orientation is helpful. On such occasions, newly acquired materials are displayed on tables where they may easily be looked over, particular attention being paid to items which the new or inexperienced teacher may not expect to find in the library such as files of clippings, pamphlets, pictures and other visual materials.

Sometimes it may be better to meet new instructors in a separate group or informally as individuals. Whatever method she employs, the librarian sees to it that they are provided not only with information which leads to easy, frictionless use of library resources, but with the kind of welcome that makes for many future visits to the library and pleasant relationships.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

The literature of reference work in the school library is largely descriptive rather than philosophical and critical. Frequently discussion is included in titles devoted primarily to reading, methods of instruction in subject matter fields (with emphasis on "activities") and articles on instruction in the use of books and libraries.

At the elementary level, particularly, it is customary to discuss reference work as a phase of reading or reading guidance. The following brief bibliography may consequently be supplemented by reference to bibliographies following Chapter III, *The Library a Reading Center*, and Chapter V, *Instruction in Library Use*.

BASIC READING

HENNE, FRANCES. "The Reference Function in the School Library." In Butler, Pierce, ed. *The Reference Function of the Library*. Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1943, p.61-80.

An over-all view which emphasizes educational functions and suggests problems for investigation. Partly summarized in an article in *The California School Library Association Bulletin* 15:9-10, November 1943.

HUTCHINS, MARGARET. *Introduction to Reference Work*. A.L.A., 1944.

In a book characterized by easy style and frequent illustrative examples the

author lays a solid foundation for all reference work although school library reference activity is not specifically discussed.

REFERENCE WORK IN PRACTICE

BELKNAP, S. Y. "The Library as a Reference Center." *Library Journal* 62:344-45, April 15, 1937.

Students may be interested in discussing critically this suggestion for forming a board of faculty directors of reference service.

CLEARY, F. D. "Our Day." *Wilson Library Bulletin* 16:134-38, October 1941.

Circumstantial account of the librarian's day with its many reference questions. The scene is an intermediate school.

——— *The Library in Action: a Guide for New Teachers, Student Teachers, Substitute Teachers in the Intermediate Schools of Detroit.* Detroit Board of Education, 1941. (Mimeographed)

A simple, attractively illustrated brochure in which the author of "Our Day" outlines for instructors the resources of the library and methods of teacher-librarian cooperation. An excellent example of publicity suggestive for all school levels.

DILLON, J. K. "Bringing Children and Books Together." *Childhood Education* 14:62-66, October 1937.

Provides examples of librarian and teacher cooperation in reference work in the elementary school.

GLENN, E. R., and EATON, A. T. "The Relation of the High School Library to the Teaching of Chemistry." *Library Journal* 48:415-18, May 1, 1923.

The methods of this progressive school in 1923 are now in use in a growing number of schools.

WHITEMAN, E. D. "Balanced Collections of Books in Study Halls at Evanston." *School and Society* 44:279-80, August 29, 1936.

A school with a too small library room uses study halls as auxiliary reference libraries.

SCHOOL ACTIVITIES AND REFERENCE WORK

"Experimenting Together" Series

The following titles are particularly valuable in presenting reference work in connection with curricular activities:

BOHMAN, E. L., and DILLON, JOSEPHINE. *The Librarian and the Teacher of Music.* A.L.A., 1942.

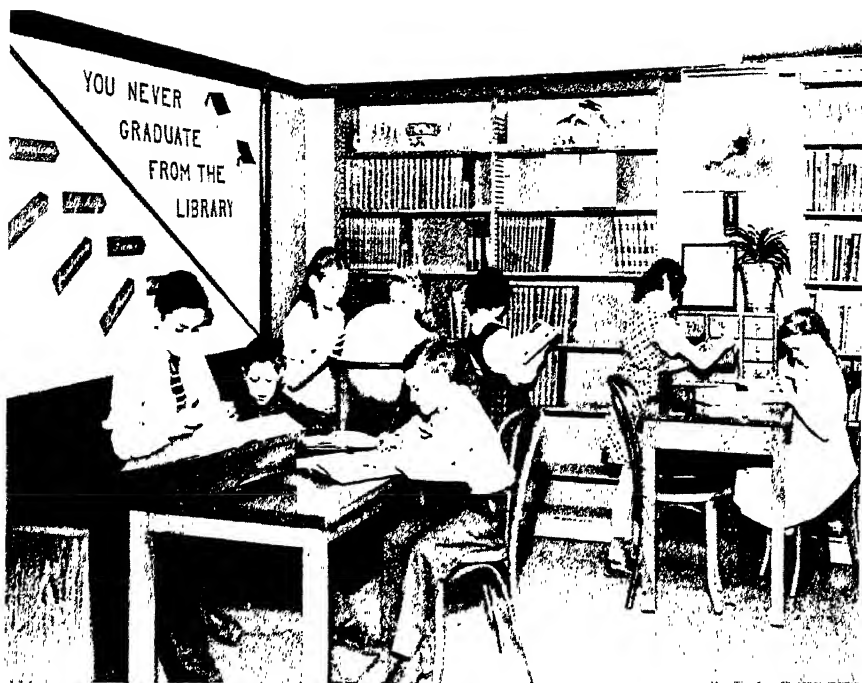
SIEBENS, C. R., and BARTLETT, W. L. *The Librarian and the Teacher of Science.* A.L.A., 1942.



Robert Gordon, Newark, N.J.
Library instruction enables the student to use the library efficiently

High school students use public library as well as school library resources





Pupils learn to use all types of library materials

"Here it is" ends the long search



Instruction in Library Use

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- | | |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| I. Functional Instruction | V. Facilities and Scheduling |
| II. What Pupils Should Learn | 1. Facilities |
| 1. Methods of ascertaining | 2. Scheduling |
| 2. Areas commonly covered | VI. The Instructor |
| 3. Instruction for library assistants | VII. Methods |
| III. Integration | 1. The steps involved in excellent instruction |
| IV. Determining Instructional Levels | 2. Individual instruction |
| 1. The continuous program | 3. Indirect instruction |
| 2. Distribution of units | VIII. Getting Started |
| 3. Pretesting | IX. A Pupil's Estimate |
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I. FUNCTIONAL INSTRUCTION

The degree to which in modern education learning is dependent upon constant and skillful use of library resources is a cogent reason for teaching pupils what the most important library tools are and how to use them effectively. Such instruction adds greatly to possibilities for independent study in school and out and encourages lifelong use of library resources as a means of continuing education.

But to be of permanent value, instruction in the use of the library must be functional. That is, it must be related to "situations which are real, interesting, and natural to the pupil, and which call for activities within the range of his abilities."¹

Failure to relate instruction to the learning process and presenting it instead as a body of knowledge or a bundle of skills having intrinsic value quite apart from everyday situations is a serious mistake. Taking students through the library "like a crowd of tourists on a 'rubber-neck wagon,'" writes Wriston, "does not lead to intelligent use of that institution." Reciting to them cabalistic numbers and showing the catalog and reference

¹ Cutright, Prudence, and Peckham, E. K. "The Pupil and Library Use." In National Society for the Study of Education. *Forty-second Yearbook, Pt. II: The Library in General Education*. 1943, p.124. (Distributed by the Department of Education, Univ. of Chicago.)

books are futile: "If ever they want the eight hundreds they will have forgotten where the eight hundreds are, what the eight hundreds are, and why they want the eight hundreds anyway." The one and only way the library becomes significant, adds this educational authority, is through faculty members who so carry on their work that students will want to use the library, or to start out with, will have to use library resources. If this occurs frequently enough in varied courses, it becomes accepted educational experience.

II. WHAT PUPILS SHOULD LEARN

It follows from the functional conception of library instruction that content and timing must be carefully considered. What, then, should pupils learn about the library at various stages of their progress through school?

1. **Methods of ascertaining.** First, the aid of instructors can be enlisted in enumerating the skills and items of knowledge essential to successful use of the library in the instructor's own courses. Possibly enumeration can best be managed through the use of forms on which teachers are asked to note as they go through textbooks and course syllabi the specific library tools and skills demanded under each unit of work. To such listings the library staff can add from observation and experience their own statements of pupil needs. Since pupil experience in the use of library resources is not necessarily limited to the school library, the observations and suggestions of members of the public library staff may also be solicited. In at least one instance the search for essential skills was extended to nearby colleges whose librarians were asked what incoming freshmen would be expected to know about the use of library resources.³

Inasmuch as library instruction texts and workbooks are now very generally based on experience in working with pupils, they too are a valuable source for units of instruction, except that care must be taken to eliminate units not applicable to the school immediately concerned.

Compilation and analysis of information from these varied sources will reveal that certain skills or areas of knowledge are suggested by all and may therefore be regarded as an instructional core; that others appear less

² Wriston, H. M. "The Place of the Library in the Modern College." In Wilson, L. R., ed. *Library Trends*. Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1936, p.165-66.

³ Ellis, Orrline. "Vitalizing Library Lessons." *Wilson Library Bulletin* 16:49-53, September 1941.

frequently because essential in a limited number of situations; and that still others make a doubtful fringe.

2. **Areas commonly covered.** The following outline is indicative of units frequently suggested,⁴ without, however, any indication of grade levels.

UNITS OF INSTRUCTION COMMONLY SUGGESTED

- I. Orientation in library use
 - A friendly welcome
 - Tour of library to discover location of resources
 - Instructions for borrowing, attendance, etc.
- II. Library citizenship
 - Respect for and care of books and equipment
 - Courtesy and fair play
 - Helpfulness—assisting the librarian, etc.
- III. Parts of the book
 - Preface, title page, table of contents, index, etc.
- IV. Classification
 - How books are arranged on the shelves
- V. The card catalog
 - How the contents of the library is indexed
 - Information gained from the catalog
 - How to use the catalog to find books
- VI. The dictionary
 - Abridged and unabridged
 - Parts and principal uses
 - Meaning of abbreviations
- VII. The encyclopedia
 - Arrangement of material
 - How to locate information
- VIII. Reference books
 - (a) Most-used titles (World Almanac, Who's Who, etc.)
 - (b) Special books limited to use in particular fields (Historical atlases, special indexes, scientific encyclopedias)
- IX. Periodicals and periodical indexes
 - (a) The Readers' Guide and its use
 - (b) Introduction to outstanding magazines
- X. Bibliography making
 - Selection and organization of material
 - Form of entry
- XI. Note-taking and briefing—especially the former

⁴ Consult also the outline appearing in Ingles, May, and McCague, Anna. *Teaching the Use of Books and Libraries*. 4th ed., rev. Wilson, 1944, chapter 1.

XII. Book selection and book buying

Evaluating books

Building the personal library

Consumer education in book buying

In this outline, I—IX, with the exception of VIII-b and IX-b, represent areas covered with considerable unanimity in practically all thorough plans for organized instruction. The exceptions noted—special reference books and magazine study—as well as X, XI, and XII, appear less frequently in published outlines. The reasons in some cases may be that these units are covered in courses in English or in study techniques.

If investigation of the scope of library instruction is extended to literature covering classroom activities in which pupils engage, it soon appears that much instruction is given which only occasionally finds its way into formal courses of study. Younger children, and some older ones, are guided into intelligent appreciation of the beauties of book illustration. Brief excursions are made into the history of printing and book manufacture. Newspaper study and the identification of propaganda are fostered. Units or projects covering the organization and services of public libraries are introduced into the social studies. Projects in book selection are extended to cover the choice of books for the home and the school library, thus bringing into use trade bibliographies and critical reviews otherwise seldom used. The preparation of bibliographies by pupils accompanies all types of activities.

While instructional work may thus be expanded it is also subject to limitation. Basic instruction stops short of reference tools chiefly of value to limited groups—industrial indexes, special encyclopedias. In teaching the card catalog, attention is focused on author, title, subject and imprint, little time being given to further details appearing on printed cards except in response to pupil inquiries. Memorization of Dewey Decimal numbers is not required since, like telephone numbers, they become familiar with use. In presenting the decimal classification the point for major emphasis is that numbers stand for subjects and are keys to location.⁵

3. Instruction for library assistants. Pupils acting as assistants or aides may need more extensive instruction than that given others. Just what it should cover depends on the duties they perform and whether the aim

⁵ Naughton, H. L. "Learning Liberry." *Wilson Library Bulletin* 16:44-45, 48, September 1941.

of the course offered is prevocational. Texts useful in training pupil assistants are listed in the bibliography following this chapter.

III. INTEGRATION

When library instruction was first introduced, the usual procedure was to outline a series of lessons for presentation by the librarian in regular sequence. If the series was long enough it was considered to be a "unit course" leading to one-half point or more of credit.

But experience proved that instruction which was not functional, being unrelated to student activities and subject matter courses, largely failed in its purpose. There was little or no follow-up and pupils promptly forgot what they had learned.

Various expedients were tried to prevent such results. Lessons were incorporated into the reading or English curriculum, not only because every pupil would thus be exposed to library training, but also because these were once thought to be the subject areas most vitally concerned with the library. Sometimes lessons were incorporated in orientation courses offered high school freshmen or in instruction in study techniques; or a block of lessons was offered in connection with the social studies, students in this field presumably having more need to use library resources than others.

Such arrangements were improvements on earlier procedures. There was more follow-up. Library assignments in English and social science classes were more frequent and had more point. Instruction was better integrated.

But fully integrated instruction arises out of a felt need on the part of the pupil and is offered when and where the need arises: in the personal regimen class when cosmetics are about to be investigated; to a group of sixth graders starting a study of China. Because it bears directly on some aspect of learning, the instruction sticks. The boy who found during war-time that the gazeteer saved him precious moments in preparing a report on naval operations in the South Seas remembers that handy tool and uses it as occasion arises.⁶

⁶ For further development of the idea of integration consult:

Alexander, Carter. "Making the Most of Library Materials in Elementary Schools." *Wilson Library Bulletin* 12:173-77 ff., November 1937.

Aldrich, Grace. "The Place of Library Lessons in the Curriculum." *Wilson Library Bulletin* 9:494-95, May 1935.

Hostetter, M. M. "Integration and Library Instruction." *A.L.A. Bulletin* 30:770-77, August 1936.

But is full integration practicable? Will not some phases of library instruction be missed by pupils who do not happen to be in the right classes? Will there not be needless repetition?

Quite likely some phases of instruction will be missed by certain pupils, but the chances are that these items will be no more numerous than those lost to the pupil through his lack of interest or failure to see their significance. Repetition there may be, but a certain amount of it is good educational practice since "habituation is the essence of learning." Moreover, if in the high school the pupil's initial introduction to the library is considered to be a part of his general orientation, all entering pupils will be scheduled for two or three library periods in which they meet the librarian, learn about borrowing privileges, and get basic instruction in the use of the catalog and other matters of general interest and value. Further instruction may then safely proceed in connection with special subject matter courses.

School library literature provides a wealth of suggestions for and examples of integrated instruction. Reference may be made to volumes such as the "Experimenting Together"⁷ series published by the American Library Association. Available also are a number of texts in which units of instruction are definitely planned for integration with the subject matter curriculum. (See bibliography following this chapter.)

IV. DETERMINING INSTRUCTIONAL LEVELS

1. **The continuous program.** It has been well said that library instruction should be continuous and that library skills are necessarily a matter of slow, progressive growth. Any program adopted should be initiated early and carried on consistently as a unified plan. Too frequently this is not the case; no instruction is offered in the elementary school save perhaps during widely spaced visits to the public library, and the program in the junior and senior high school is fragmentary.

2. **Distribution of units.**⁸ Fortunately, the situation mentioned above is changing slowly but surely, with instruction often being spread over the entire length of elementary and secondary education. Investigation by

⁷ "Experimenting Together" series. A.L.A. (Various dates) "Pictures school classrooms and libraries in cooperative action." Several titles now available, others planned. Inexpensive. See A.L.A. *Catalog of Books and Pamphlets*.

⁸ For a sequential listing of units for the elementary school see Gardiner, Jewel, and Baisden, L. M. "Scope and Sequence Chart." In their *Administering Library Service in the Elementary School*. A.L.A., 1941, p.117-19.

Reed of some twenty-six courses of study for elementary and high schools issued by city and state departments of education indicated that the various areas of library instruction were distributed as follows:⁹

DISTRIBUTION OF UNITS

Study unit or subject treated	Presented in school grades
Orientation in use of library	I - X
Meaning of classification	II - XII
How to use the catalog	IV - XII
Parts of a book—preface, index, etc.	II - XII
Magazine study	VII - XI
Use of <i>Readers' Guide</i>	VII-XII
Newspaper study (infrequent)	VII, XII
Encyclopedias	IV - XII
Dictionaries	III - XII
Special indexes (occasionally presented)	VI - XII
Reference books	V - XII

To what extent the grade distributions indicated here were based on testing or on analysis of the school curriculum there is no means of knowing. But the lack of uniformity in grade placement is striking and would probably be equally striking were the investigation repeated today. "Parts of the book" may be taught anywhere from the second to the twelfth year; "Use of the *Readers' Guide*" from the seventh to the twelfth; and so on. This wide diversity in practice may stem primarily from the frequent necessity of offering in junior and senior high schools instruction which should have been available in the elementary school, but it would be unwise to jump to the conclusion that such an assumption explains everything. For one thing, it is well to remember that the same general area may wisely be covered in review with more mature applications and the introduction of added tools.

3. **Pretesting.** Perhaps the safest way to obtain a bird's-eye view of the needs of pupils at certain levels in any particular school system, as when progressing from junior to senior high, is to make use of diagnostic tests.¹⁰ Pretesting has now been carried on long enough in a number of places to have brought about the formulation and printing of tests applicable,

⁹ Reed, L. R. "A Test of Students' Competence to Use the Library." *Library Quarterly* 8:258, April 1938.

¹⁰ See interesting results obtained in one school system from such testing as set forth in Ellis, *op. cit.*

with slight adjustments, to groups almost anywhere; or, if not applicable as they stand, at least full of suggestions for the librarian about to produce her own. A number are listed in the bibliography at the end of this chapter.

V. FACILITIES AND SCHEDULING

1. **Facilities.** A well-organized school library containing a good basic collection of reference volumes is indispensable. Lessons on the use of library resources far removed from the school or for some reason inaccessible during the better part of the school day are not very effective except in the case of occasional superior pupils who need little incentive. It is now generally recognized that while a small school may profitably arrange with a central agency for the supply of current reading matter, it must have permanently on its library shelves a good basic collection of reference titles for reference purposes and training in reference work. It must also have a well-made catalog and a few important indexes.

Instructional activities may be carried on in the main reading center or in classrooms removed from the library, but conference and class or audio-visual rooms attached to the library itself simplify and encourage instructional activities. This is particularly true in the secondary school. In the elementary school these supplementary rooms may not be quite so important since library attendance is more apt to be scheduled by classes and interference with the work of pupils not enrolled in the class arriving for special instruction is less apt to occur.

In all schools, basic initial instruction should be given within the library itself. Pupils need to become accustomed to the library—shyness must be broken down. Moreover, lessons on the arrangement of books, on the card catalog, on the use of vertical files, etc., are best given in the presence of the objects involved. Charts, slides and moving pictures may be substituted for actual visits to the library, but they do not have quite the same impact, and opportunity for immediate use of the tools involved is missed.

When pupils are sure of location and arrangement, subsequent instruction may be given elsewhere, either by the librarian or the classroom teacher, essential paraphernalia being transferred to the classroom. A blackboard should always be available and a projector is useful. Practice in the use of the limited resources of the school library is wisely supplemented by visits to the public library and by activities requiring investigation of its wider facilities.

2. **Scheduling.** In cases where library lessons are not wholly integrated

with classroom work the question arises, "How shall instruction be scheduled?" First of all, the librarian and principal, or the librarian and department heads work together to insure definite time allotments. Orientation units should obviously be undertaken as soon as possible after registration day in order that knowledge of working tools may not be delayed. Since it is impossible for an indefinite number of pupils to use library facilities at the same time and may be inexpedient for the librarian to devote too large a share of her day to classwork, instruction is usually staggered. In a large school, perhaps not more than three or four classes a week are scheduled, particularly if ensuing assignments require use of special library tools.

Orientation periods for junior high and senior high school pupils may be arranged in many ways. If the school provides a general orientation course, the first visit of incoming pupils to the library may occur in conjunction with that. Or the library may schedule orientation periods independently, usually through some arrangement whereby freshmen classes in English or social science, subjects in which all pupils are presumably enrolled, visit the library in relays. Some schools arrange for a library "Freshman Day" during which all other students are barred from attendance and successive groups of beginning pupils are welcomed and shown around by the librarian or members of the library club, or both. They receive library handbooks or simple oral instructions as to library use and engage briefly in some activity such as filling out a library floor plan or playing a library game.

Arranging for instruction in the average elementary school is often simpler than in the high school because of scheduled attendance. All that is necessary is joint planning by librarian and instructors.

Pupil groups brought into the school library, either for orientation or for later instruction, should be kept small even though the library will accommodate a considerable number. Forty or fifty should be the limit. Even with an assistant librarian, greater numbers are a hazard.

VI. THE INSTRUCTOR

Who is to be responsible for the presentation of library instruction? The librarian? The classroom teacher? Both?

The easy answer is: let him who is best qualified do the teaching. And in these days of librarian certification on a teaching basis, it might easily be assumed that the lot would fall to the librarian.

But there are other considerations.

When fully independent courses were the rule it was rather generally taken for granted that the librarian would be the instructor. But that idea began early to be exploded by librarians who either found it impossible to assume so large a task singlehandedly or who believed that library lessons presented by classroom teachers had definite advantages. The classroom teacher was in the business of teaching; she might well make a better job of formal instruction than the librarian; such activity might conceivably have the effect of arousing her interest in the library and of increasing her skill in its use; there could be a better follow-up.

In many schools these assumptions on the part of the librarian proved correct. So, for reasons of educational effectiveness as well as by reason of the librarian's load, classroom teachers are today widely engaged in the presentation of library lessons. When it comes to integrated instruction, the arguments for teacher participation, if not full responsibility in the case of certain units, are overwhelming. Whenever possible the teacher should be present while the pupils are working out follow-up assignments.

Where the professional library staff numbers more than one, the individual selected for instructional work will presumably be the one whose teaching experience and personality best fit her for teaching. If there is but one professional librarian, she will consistently function as technical consultant in all phases of the instructional program presented in classrooms, and will assume personal responsibility for orientation periods.

When it comes to supervision and guidance in the library of pupil activities engendered by the instruction, the responsibilities of all members of the library staff are heavy, for many assignments are necessarily carried out with no teacher present.

VII. METHODS

Prospective school librarians are now presumed to be versed sufficiently in educational methods previous to their entering library school to apply their knowledge and experience satisfactorily in the field of library instruction. If they have not had teacher training or experience adequate for this purpose they should take steps to secure the necessary training with the least possible delay, meantime resorting to volumes on educational methods and closely observing the teaching techniques successfully employed by the instructors with whom they work. Only a few pointers can be given here.

1. The steps involved in excellent instruction. Steps in instruction may be stated as: motivation, effective presentation, pupil activity and drill, testing, and reviewing.

Motivation.—Preferably, motivation should stem from the learner's classroom activities. Much depends on the teacher's personal knowledge of library resources and of the ways in which they may be used and on her alertness to capitalize upon opportunities for library projects. Although this is true, the librarian may not shirk her own responsibilities in motivation. She keeps the instructor constantly in touch with new materials and new ideas for projects and activities gleaned through professional reading. Also, she provides motivation in the library itself through displays that pique curiosity and lead to exploration, by demonstrating for individuals how easy it is to find what is wanted when familiar with the tools, and by organizing groups of library assistants whose members find it important to learn how to use the library in order to be helpful there.

Effective presentation.—Effective presentation does not necessarily mean oral presentation on the part of the instructor or the use of a formal textbook, although both may be valuable if combined with other methods. The oral presentation may be made by individual pupils or committees who report to their fellow-classmates on discoveries relative to the usefulness of indexes, quotation books, special encyclopedias, pamphlet collections, and so on. Much use is made of visual aids and of demonstration. Book in hand, the teacher indicates outstanding characteristics such as alphabetical arrangement, maps and charts. Or better, she inserts sample pages,¹¹ or the volume itself, in a reflectoscope and so projects a screen image large enough for all to see. Slides depicting catalog cards and their arrangement within the tray may also be used, or large cardboard replicas of cards may be displayed. Lacking a projector, or as a supplementary measure when a particular book is under examination, such physical features as require emphasis may be listed on the blackboard and the book itself placed on a convenient table for later examination. This obviates distracting attention and does away with ineffective examination of the volume during the class period. Through the use of a projector, the arrangement of books on the shelves may be indicated. A movie film may

¹¹ Publishers of unabridged dictionaries and of encyclopedias furnish sample pages on request, and from the H. W. Wilson Company may be had sample pages of the Readers' Guide. Usually these samples may be had in sufficient numbers to provide an entire class group, but the screen is still useful in calling attention to items of importance.

show the proper way to open a book or how to have it charged at the desk. Indeed, the entire process of finding a book on the shelves through the use of the catalog may be portrayed in films purchased or rented for that purpose¹² or made by an energetic club in the school itself.

One advantage of both films and slides is that large groups may be instructed equally as well as smaller ones. Some instructors prefer slides to films because the sequences can be rearranged and the picture can be kept on the screen as long as desired.¹³

Many library instruction texts and workbooks are now so well illustrated with pictures, drawings, and replicas of pages of reference books that other visual aids may not be necessary.

Pupil activity and drill.—The best drill is that coming through daily practice. If pupils form the habit of consulting the catalog for call numbers, they soon discover 700 means art and 500 science. Continued use of encyclopedias hammers home the fact that, while one must be approached by way of its index, another has a straight dictionary arrangement. In the elementary school, games are often used as a means of drill. Among older groups it is customary to assign the preparation of a bibliography of magazine articles following instruction dealing with the *Readers' Guide*. Ambitious projects in book selection are carried through by groups who have been introduced to tools such as the *Saturday Review of Literature* and the *Subscription Books Bulletin*.

To get the best results from assignments and projects, pupils should be checked on how they have worked as well as on what they have accomplished. When reporting they should be expected to tell in what manner they approached the assignment; to cite sources consistently, accurately and in good form; and to tell why these sources were used.

Testing.—The desirability of testing pupil knowledge before launching new instruction has been noted. But testing to ascertain what has been gained from instruction or to encourage mastery is also important. It may be either informal or formal. Library games may be so devised as to test competence. Some textbooks follow information with questions by which

¹² Library films are produced from time to time by libraries and educational agencies. Since lists of such films are soon out of date, the librarian is advised to watch for announcements in library periodicals and educational motion picture catalogs. For advice concerning the home production of library films see Fargo, L. F. *Activity Book Number Two*. A.L.A., 1945, p.18-19, and the accompanying bibliography on p.32-33.

¹³ Evans, E. B., and Dennis, A. "Teaching the Use of the Library with Lantern Slides." *Library Journal* 66:75, January 15, 1942.

pupils may test their own comprehension and skill. Workbooks and work sheets also provide means of testing mastery. Many are available in printed form but require frequent revision to meet changed situations and local practices. In developing workbooks and work sheets for local use it is well to make adjustments for varying ability levels either by providing separate sheets or by grouping questions and problems in an ascending scale of difficulty.

Objective tests such as true-false, completion, and matching are valuable in the library because of the speed with which they may be answered and scored. Where library instruction is fully integrated, test questions occur in the tests and examinations given in the subject field.

Reviewing.—Formal reviewing in preparation for a test has its values. But the reviewing which takes place when problems are set or activities encouraged which require brushing up on information previously acquired or on skills half forgotten through disuse may be more valuable. It occurs without any special planning if instructors encourage continuous use of the library.

2. **Individual instruction.** Work with groups is in reality a small fraction of the librarian's instructional job. Daily she is plied with questions or requests for personal assistance which are challenges to her instructional astuteness. The difference between merely answering a question and helping the pupil answer it for himself has been discussed. One is service, the other, training. Both are valuable, but the school librarian should be well aware of this distinction and lose no opportunity to turn a request for help into educational activity.

3. **Indirect instruction.** Much instruction may be unobtrusively provided through the use of printed guide cards, "How to use this catalog," inserted in the catalog, and location charts of larger size posted nearby. The S O S and other leaflets published by the H. W. Wilson Company have been used as models for instructional posters. Other printed or original posters, sometimes humorous as the famous library "Goops," help to instruct in library etiquette. A number are available through library supply firms.

VIII. GETTING STARTED

Initiating a program of instruction in a school previously without it requires thought and careful planning. While the need for instruction is now widely recognized in educational circles, there often occur situations

in which the idea must be gradually "sold" before any comprehensive plan can be put in operation.

There is seldom any objection to the initiation of a few orientation periods conducted by the librarian, and, since in every faculty there are instructors eager to experiment, the next step may be the development of integrated instruction in their particular fields. As the idea spreads, general faculty discussion may take place, possibly resulting in the appointment of a committee headed by the librarian to consider what, how, when and where instruction can best be fitted into the existing school program. The committee may also consider whether there is need for preparatory in-service instruction for faculty members and what supplementary aids for teachers and pupils would be desirable.

Since any first plan must be designed to start where pupils are, it should be tentative and subject to revision as experience dictates. On the whole, step-by-step development of the program similar to that just outlined works out more satisfactorily than the inauguration of a too ambitious plan under high pressure.

IX. A PUPIL'S ESTIMATE

An incident related by Angelo Patri provides an excellent finale for any discussion of library instruction.

'If,' exclaimed one young learner, 'the President of the United States wants to write a message on any subject, does he sit and scratch his head? He does not. He gets his secretaries to look it up for him in the very best reference books that they can find. And when I'm a man, if I have a son, I am going to send him to a school where they will teach him just which book to go to, and what stuff to pick, and how to use it after he gets it.'¹⁴

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Outlines content of instruction at successive school levels and suggests the use of work sheets.

¹⁴McDonnell, Mary. "Finding It in Books." *Wilson Library Bulletin* 3:277, Summer, 1928. Reprinted from a story in Angelo Patri's column in the *Post*.

COULBOURN, JOHN. "The School Library as a Teaching Agency." In his *Administering the School Library*. Educational Publishers, 1942, p.52-61. "Guide to Action" series, no. 3.

Library instruction as viewed by a school principal who does not overlook the responsibilities of the school administrator in fostering a workable program.

CUTRIGHT, PRUDENCE, and PECKHAM, E. K. "The Pupil and Library Use." In *National Society for the Study of Education. Forty-second Yearbook, Pt. II: The Library in General Education*. 1943, p.124-28. (Distributed by the Department of Education, Univ. of Chicago.)

An assistant superintendent of schools and a supervisor of classroom instruction discuss fundamental principles of library instruction and suggest procedures for a functional program.

ELLIS, ORRLINE. "Vitalizing Library Lessons." *Wilson Library Bulletin* 16:49-53, September 1941.

The content of the curriculum as determined in one school by pretests and by librarian observation of student need of specific skills.

FENNER, P. R. "This Is Fun." In her *Our Library*. John Day, 1942, chapter 2. Informal description of methods and activities in the elementary school.

WIGHT, E. A., and CARNOVSKY, LEON. "The Library; Instruction in . . . use." In Gray, W. S., ed. *Reading in General Education*. American Council on Education, 1940, p.434-38.

Summarizes current thinking and practice and suggests the content of a basic curriculum.

USEFUL TO THE INSTRUCTOR

BROWN, ZAIDEE. *Library Key*. 6th ed., rev. Wilson, 1945.

A series of lessons for use with older boys and girls. Each lesson followed by suggestions for practice. Frequently revised. Appendix I, "Short Cuts to Information," an extremely valuable list of sources and aids is available as a separate.

CLEARY, F. D. *The Library in Action: A Guide for New Teachers, Student Teachers, Substitute Teachers in the Intermediate Schools of Detroit, Michigan*. Detroit Board of Education, 1941. (Mimeographed)

Attractive illustrations and practical approach make this an unusually significant teacher's guide.

FARGO, L. F. *Activity Book for School Libraries*. A.L.A., 1938.

— *Activity Book Number Two*. A.L.A., 1945.

Many activities described in these volumes are useful from the point of view of library instruction. The second volume is more useful at the senior high school level than the first.

INGLES, MAY, and MCCAGUE, ANNA. *Teaching the Use of Books and Libraries*. 4th ed., rev. Wilson, 1944.

Everything for the instructor. Very complete as to sources, devices, and methods. Excellent bibliographies, tests, projects, and practice work.

LOS ANGELES CITY SCHOOLS. Road Maps and Treasure Hunts. Office of Superintendent, 1940. (School Publication no. 345)

Simple lesson plans for teachers arranged under the following headings: Intended outcomes; Materials; Approach; Activities; Summary (including tests). May be used as a pupil's workbook. Elastic enough to be adapted to any grade and to be correlated with any course.

MINNEAPOLIS PUBLIC SCHOOLS LIBRARY INSTRUCTION COMMITTEE. Classroom Instruction, Pupil's Use of Books, and the Junior High School Library. Minneapolis Board of Education, 1942.

Part one discusses principles and theories; part two consists of illustrative procedures.

SMITH, X. P. "Streamlining Library Instruction." *Library Journal* 65:521-22, June 15, 1940.

The use of film strips as practiced in the University of Oregon to teach the card catalog, periodical indexes, and general reference books will be of interest to high school instructors also.

TEXTS AND WORKBOOKS

BOYD, JESSIE, BAISDEN, L. B., and others. Books, Libraries and You. Scribner, 1941.

An outstanding handbook on the use of reference books and reference resources at the high school level. Many illustrations and sample pages from the tool books studied. Closely related throughout to the learning activities of pupils.

CLEARY, F. D. Learning to Use the Library in the Junior High School. Wilson, 1936.

A short manual consisting of six individualized lessons to be given in English classes.

DETROIT BOARD OF EDUCATION. Library Handbook for Boys and Girls of the Intermediate Schools. The Board, 1937.

Large type, frequent illustrations and simplicity of text characterize this inexpensive manual.

GRAHAM, M. D. How to Use Your School Library. Bardeen Pr., 1939.

Combined text and workbook for elementary schools. Inexpensive, simple, clear, logical.

MOTT, CAROLYN, and BAISDEN, L. B. Children's Book on How to Use Books and Libraries. Scribner, 1937.

Clear type, effective arrangement, and fascinating illustrations in color characterize this most attractive (and comprehensive) textbook for the elementary grades.

— Children's Library Lesson Book. Scribner, 1937.

A workbook designed to accompany the above.

SCRIPTURE, ELIZABETH, and GREER, M. R. *Find It Yourself*. 2d rev. ed. Wilson, 1943.

This inexpensive little printed manual is planned for individual use by pupils following one or two orientation periods. "Each . . . can proceed by reading and observation to acquire the information outlined . . . at his own rate of speed. When he encounters a difficulty he cannot surmount, he comes to the teacher or librarian for individual instruction." Allowance is made for individual differences.

TOSER, M. A. *Library Manual*, rev. ed. Wilson, 1945.

Simple, practical, inexpensive study-work manual for high school freshmen and sophomores. Illustrated with sample cards, pages from dictionaries, etc. Quizzes and examination questions on separate loose sheets.

NOTE: A more extensive annotated list of texts and workbooks appears in Hayner, C. I. "Introducing the Library to Young People." *Wilson Library Bulletin* 17: 230-33, November 1942.

TEACHING AIDS AND DEVICES

Available from the H. W. Wilson Company:

How to Use the *Readers' Guide* . . . and Other Periodical Indexes (with sample pages)
So This Is the Catalog
SOS in the Library
Time-Savers

(Consult the Wilson Company catalog for quantity prices for these leaflets.)

Available from publishers of encyclopedias and dictionaries:

Sample pages, illustrated leaflets describing special features, work sheets, etc.
Write for lists and sample copies.

Sources of illustrative materials, including films, are listed in the following:
INGLES, MAY, and McCAGUE, ANNA. *Teaching the Use of Books and Libraries*. 4th ed. Wilson, 1944.

BROWN, ZAIDEE. *The Library Key*. 6th ed. Wilson, 1945, Appendix I: "Short Cuts to Information." (Also printed as a separate.)

NOTE: Articles appearing in the *Wilson Library Bulletin* and elsewhere often suggest new devices and mention new films. Catalogs of library equipment firms (Demco, Gaylord Brothers, Remington Rand Library Bureau, etc.) should be examined for posters, signs, catalog guides, etc., and those of educational motion picture agencies for teaching films.

TESTS

Many tests are included in the teachers' manuals and pupils' texts and workbooks already listed. Those that follow are more ambitious and are available separately or in quantity.

SCHOOL LIBRARY ASSOCIATION OF CALIFORNIA COMMITTEE ON TESTS. Library Test for Junior High Schools; Forms A and B. California Test Bureau, 5916 Hollywood Blvd., Los Angeles 28. 1942. Specimen sets, 25c each. These are thirty-minute diagnostic tests scientifically prepared.

SHORES, LOUIS, and MOORE, J. E. Peabody Library Information Tests. Educational Publishers, 2106 Pierce Avenue, Nashville, Tennessee, 1938-40. Three sets, on elementary, high school, and college levels respectively.

FOR TRAINING PUPIL ASSISTANTS

BENNETT, WILMA. The Student Library Assistant. 2d ed. Wilson, 1938. (O.p.; new edition in preparation.)

A comprehensive manual. Lessons sold separately in quantity, punched for notebook use. Some projects will be suggestive in connection with units on teaching the use of the library.

DAVIS, W. L. Pictorial Library Primer. Demco Library Supplies Division of Library Research, New Haven, Connecticut, 1944.

Outstanding in its use of drawings to illustrate records, tools, and processes.

BACKGROUND READING FOR PUPILS

"Building America," v.7, no.5: Libraries. Society for Curriculum Study, 1942.

Distributed by Americana Corporation, 2 W. 45th Street, New York City. Like other numbers in this series, this is an attractively illustrated leaflet designed for school use and filled with compact information.

FARGO, L. F. Treasure Shelves. Row, Peterson, 1941. "Way of Life" series.

Narrative description of a day in a small public library. Designed for junior and senior high school use and profusely illustrated with photographs.

KELIHER, A. V. Library Workers. Harper, 1940.

One of the "Picture Fact" series, beautiful in format and illustration. Description of library work in general.

"Libraries from Ancient to Modern Times." Reprinted from Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia. Gratis.

Contains many pictures of boys and girls at work in libraries.

LOWE, J. A. "Library." Reprinted from The World Book Encyclopedia. Gratis.

Brief history, followed by information concerning libraries in foreign countries and the United States. Contains a section on library use.

ROSSELL, B. S. Public Libraries in the Life of the Nation. A.L.A., 1943.

Useful in presenting to older boys and girls the services rendered by libraries. Also useful in vocational guidance.

III

Personnel and Management

Personnel of the School Library

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| I. The Library Staff | 2. Duties |
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I. THE LIBRARY STAFF

1. **Classification of personnel.** The library staff in many schools consists of one individual only: a librarian, a teacher-librarian, or a teacher. In the secondary field this is because of the diminutive size of the vast majority of schools, enrollment in some 76 per cent of those in the United States reaching less than three hundred, and to the fact that high school standards still too frequently exist as goals rather than measures of actual practice. In the elementary field, only occasional schools as yet maintain organized libraries, others have reading rooms presided over by a teacher or teacher-librarian with or without aid from an outside center such as a county library.

However, in a rapidly increasing number of school systems there exist fully functioning libraries in charge of well-organized staffs made up of professional personnel, clerical and unclassified help, and pupil assistants.

2. **Size of staff.** How many and what types of personnel are essential in any particular school and how many individuals of each type, depend upon varied factors such as the number of teachers and pupils to be served, the nature of the service required, and the extent to which organizational work (cataloging, ordering, processing of books) is provided through a central agency outside the school. The 1945 standards for personnel sponsored by the American Library Association Committees on Post-War Planning state:¹

If the librarian is to share with teachers the responsibility of guiding and stimulating young people and to organize materials for this purpose, . . . it appears that a full-time librarian with clerical assistance is needed in any school, elementary or secondary, with a school membership of 200 pupils or more and in which the full possibility of the library is realized in the school program.

If "full possibility" in the above is contrasted with "can serve effectively" in the statement by the committee which immediately follows, the two may not appear to be contradictory:

One trained, experienced, full-time school librarian can serve effectively a school enrollment of not more than 500 pupils An additional trained, full-time school librarian is needed for each additional 500 pupils or major fraction thereof.

In schools having an enrollment of less than 200 pupils, definitely scheduled part-time service during the school day is essential either from a teacher-librarian within the school or from an itinerant professional librarian who serves more than one school.

Yardsticks such as these for size of staff have played an important part in providing more adequate school library staffs throughout the country. In the past they have frequently erred in making size of staff too largely dependent upon enrollment without at the same time taking into account other factors which have an important bearing on librarian load. Among these factors are three suggested some time ago by Hicks:² library attend-

¹ American Library Association Committees on Post-War Planning. *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow*. A.L.A., 1945, p.17.

² Hicks, H. H. "The Junior High School Library." In American Library Association School Libraries Committee. *School Library Yearbook Number Five*. A.L.A., 1932, p.77.

ance (not school enrollment), circulation, and book selection activities.

Recently, in a report to their board of education, a committee of high school librarians in one city pointed out that, in addition to library attendance and circulation, such factors should be considered as type of school (whether academic, experimental, technical), size of book collection, and housing of library (whether embracing more than one room, whether rooms were adjacent or separated), and whether the library was connected with the study hall.

A somewhat broader basis than any of the foregoing for estimating librarian load and, consequently, size of staff is suggested by Smith³ who finds that among the most important factors are the philosophy of the school program, the use of books and libraries in the school program, the amount of library activity involved in school assignments, the program of library instruction, and whether or not the library functions as a study hall.

To these should be added a factor rather generally overlooked: the amount and nature of organizational work (cataloging, classifying, ordering and processing) done by a staff in the central office of a system of which the individual school library may be a unit.

At present the factors involved in librarian load seem too intangible and too much influenced by local conditions and programs to allow setting up hard and fast standards for size of staff. Following this thinking, the *Evaluative Criteria* of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards push numerical standards into the background, preferring rather to ask, "How adequate are the provisions for the library staff?"⁴ while leaving it to the school and the evaluating committee to decide upon the answer in the light of the school program and the extent to which the library is expected to underwrite it. However, further scientific studies are needed in the field as a basis for setting up standards.

II. PROFESSIONAL PERSONNEL

1. **Definition.** By librarians, a professional staff member has been defined as an individual who has a knowledge of library work as taught in an approved library school, or the equivalent of the same, usually in expe-

³Smith, M. M. *The Service Load of High School Librarians*. School of Library Service, Columbia Univ., 1941, p.10 ff. (Unpublished thesis) Probably the most comprehensive study of the subject yet made, and a very useful one.

⁴Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards. *Evaluative Criteria; F, Library Service*. 1940 ed. The Study, 1940, p.51.

rience.⁵ In the case of school librarians this definition is ordinarily qualified by adding that such an individual should have had teaching experience or adequate courses in education.

Definitions coming from educational sources often begin at the other end and have a different emphasis, i.e., a school librarian is a well-qualified teacher who, in addition to required courses in education, has covered a more or less extensive curriculum in library science.

In either case, the school librarian needs to qualify in two professional fields, and this raises knotty problems a number of which still await satisfactory solution. But as regional accrediting agencies⁶ and state departments of education have progressively raised the number of hours in library science required for full-time school librarians, thus giving them the status of special teachers, a good many difficulties have vanished. To the extent that preparation beyond that of other members of the instructional staff is required of the specialist in any school field, the librarian is not being discriminated against in the matter of training. Also, as a specialist she tends to receive desirable recognition and status, including the same remuneration paid teachers of like standing.

2. **Certification.** Frequent changes in regulations covering certification make setting them forth in detail futile. A glance at trends will be more to the point.

One significant trend is differentiation between requirements for part-time and full-time library service. For the latter, the requirement is apt to be completion of one year in an approved library school or of an academic major of 24 semester hours in library science.⁷ For the part-time librarian, requirements run from 6 to 18 hours only.

As indicated by data collected by the American Library Association,⁸ seventeen states are without special certification requirements for school

⁵ "The positions in the Professional Service, by nature of the duties performed, require persons who have a knowledge of library work as taught in a library school." A.L.A. Board on Salaries, Staff and Tenure. *Organization and Personnel Procedure . . . a Suggested Plan*. A.L.A., 1940, p.14. (Mimeographed; a new edition is in progress.)

⁶ There are several such agencies in the United States, among which are the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. All are voluntary organizations devoted to the study and betterment of education in their special areas, and each determines standards for the evaluation of the educational programs of the schools within its territory. These standards include libraries.

⁷ New York state requires a total of 36 hours in library science.

⁸ Compilations of state certification requirements for school librarians issued at intervals by the Association may be had on request. Data given above are for 1945.

librarians, though it is probable a teaching credential is demanded. In thirty-one states and the District of Columbia, school librarians must hold certificates issued by state departments of education. In addition to library science, requirements rather generally include from 12 to 24 hours in education. However, a development apparently growing in favor is the provision that credits for certain courses in library science and/or those for supervised library practice or field work may be presented in lieu of credits for equivalent methods courses in education and supervised teaching, thus cutting down the total number of hours of purely professional training in favor of broader backgrounds in general education. In Louisiana, for instance, library science courses in Children's Books, Book Selection for School Libraries, School Library Administration, and Teaching the Use of Books and Libraries may be counted as education credits. Ohio makes similar arrangements and Michigan allows substitutions including 5 semester hours of library practice for an equal number of hours of directed teaching.

Among other special provisions of significance are approval by the state supervisor of school libraries of all credentials authorizing employment of school librarians (Louisiana), and provision for temporary certification combined with opportunity for the attainment of a permanent or higher-grade credential on presentation of additional library science credits. Also worthy of note is the growing number of states requiring librarian certification for service in elementary schools, a distinct step in advance.

In addition to state requirements, local requirements may have to be met. Thus in a number of school systems the librarian seeking appointment must pass a special examination in library science.

III. THE HEAD LIBRARIAN

1. **Preparation and background.**⁹ As already indicated, the head librarian is presumably a college graduate who holds a school librarian credential

⁹ See also titles by Shores and Fargo in the bibliography at the end of this chapter.

Data appearing in Clevenger's report (see bibliography) indicate unmistakably that preparation frequently lags behind standards. Only 523 out of a total of 2647 head librarians, and 93 out of 347 full-time assistants (approximately one-fifth and one-sixth respectively) hold library degrees. Representative figures on the number of semester hours in library science are as follows: 1060 out of 2382 head librarians had between 0 and 7 hours; 443 had 8 to 15 hours; 340 had 16 to 30 hours; 247 had 31 or more hours; 292 did not report. The added statement is made that even in schools enrolling 1000 or more, head librarians frequently have less professional training than that required for a degree or a certificate in library science.

Study of the elementary field reveals far lower percentages of well-prepared librarians.

including some 30 hours in library science and who has sufficient background in education to assure proficiency in working with instructors and pupils and in forwarding the educational program. More specifically, she is fully competent in knowledge of printed materials as tools and as media for satisfying the aesthetic, recreational and emotional needs of boys and girls; she is skilled in organizing these materials for use and in making them serve the educational purposes of the school; and she has broad acquaintanceship with best administrative practice in her special field. It is highly desirable also that the head librarian have experience in working with pupils and teachers, the minimum being represented by the supervised teaching required in the education curriculum or equivalent school library field work required for graduation from library school. For either of these, a reasonable amount of teaching experience or of library service with school groups may be substituted.

These are, however, only the foundation stones of the head librarian's professional education. If she is the stuff of which outstanding librarians are made, initial preparation will be supplemented as the years go by with continuous professional reading; with visits to other libraries; attendance at conventions, institutes, and workshops; and if possible, with advanced study of a more formal nature in fields of personal and professional significance. The precise field is not of as great consequence as the fact that through study the librarian is keeping intellectually alive and alert to new aspects of professional work.

2. **Status.** Nowadays the head librarian very generally enters the school as a member of the instructional staff assigned to special duties centering in and about the library.¹⁰ Such status means that she shares in all educational responsibilities and privileges. Among the last are school holidays and vacations and a salary equal to that of other members of the instructional staff with equivalent preparation, experience, and responsibilities.

Administration of the library as a highly important unit or department of school service suggests that the head librarian may well have the status of department head or of a supervisory or special officer such as counselor or dean.

In actual practice, school librarians do sometimes hold the rank of department head although the number is not as large as it should be. Because of the nature and importance of the head librarian's relationships to other

¹⁰ Where the public library is responsible for school service the librarian may be a member of the public library staff under special assignment.

departments and to all phases of the school program, the time may come when her rank will more nearly approximate that of an assistant principal.

An aspect of status that seriously interferes with smooth administration in some schools is the practice of appointing all professional members of the library staff as workers of coordinate rank. There should always be a head librarian who should be selected for her qualities of leadership, initiative, and ability in personnel management.

3. Salary, hours, vacations, etc.

Salaries.—Salaries are fixed by status, and that of the school librarian is ordinarily included in the over-all instructional budget. Since in better schools the salary schedule for instructors provides for substantial and automatic increases over a considerable period of years, the librarian is in a favorable position. Minimum and maximum salaries of course vary from school to school; and at a time when, owing to uncertainties consequent upon World War II, all financial arrangements are in a state of flux, there is little point in quoting actual figures.¹¹ However, this much may be said. For the academic year 1940-41, the median salary for head librarians in the forty-five school library systems reporting to the American Library Association ran from an average minimum of \$1447.50 to an average maximum of \$2226, while the lowest salary anywhere reported was \$800 and the highest \$4600.¹²

In considering financial remuneration, the young librarian does well to look not alone at the beginning salary but at the schedule as a whole. One offering automatic annual increases over a considerable period of years may be far better than one with a slightly higher minimum but with a maximum quickly reached.

When a school library is operated as a branch of the public library, salaries may be paid by the latter in accordance with the public library schedule rather than with that of the school system which is often higher.

Hours.—So little uniformity prevails in the hours of service required of

¹¹ The American Library Association published annually (until the war interfered) in its *Bulletin* salary and other statistics gathered from secondary schools in some forty or fifty widely scattered cities. To date, this is the best source of information available. The tabulation covered sources of funds, total library expenditures, librarian status, hours per week, and vacations and holidays on pay as well as actual salaries. Eventually, it is hoped that the sampling formerly carried on by the Association may be superseded by fuller data collected through the Library Service Division of the U.S. Office of Education.

¹² A.L.A. *Bulletin* 36:132-33, February 1942. In addition to the figures for head librarians, median figures for professional assistants were reported as running approximately \$350 lower.

school librarians and in vacations allowed, that the candidate for a position can judge of its desirability with relation to these points only by inquiring about them in advance.

The number of hours per day during which the library should be open for use naturally depends on the nature and extent of the school program. In a public high school not operating in the evening, hours open should include some fifteen to thirty minutes prior to the formal opening of school, the lunch period or a portion of it, and an after-school period of some sixty to ninety minutes. This schedule is necessary to give pupils and teachers every possible opportunity to use the library. It also provides for the withdrawal and return of books at convenient times. In the case of a private boarding school, or when late afternoon or evening sessions are run in the public school, the library day should usually be extended. The same is true when the school library serves an adult community.

When the library staff numbers more than one, the library can be kept open the necessary number of hours without overloading either the head librarian or her assistants, at the same time providing time for the accomplishment of administrative duties and technical work such as cataloging. But a professional staff numbering only one presents real problems. More often than not, there is during every period of the day a "full house" of an extremely demanding group. This means that during the hours of a working day commensurate in length with that of an instructor,¹³ the librarian has little if any opportunity for organizational work. To meet this situation, it is highly desirable that the head librarian should be employed and paid extra for service extending a month or more beyond the school year. Depending on circumstances, similar arrangements may be necessary even when there are professional assistants.

Vacations, holidays, and visiting opportunities.—By and large, school librarians employed in systems where libraries are operated directly by boards of education—and that means in some 97 per cent of all systems—the vacations allowed approximate those of the instructional staff. Exceptions may occur where, as suggested above, the librarian's contract calls for an extra period of paid service; or in rural communities where there is a noticeable inclination to make the school a year-round social center.

¹³ Smith, M. M. *The Service Load of High School Librarians*. Columbia University School of Library Service, 1941, p.29. (Thesis) In this study based on returns from 122 high schools of varying sizes it was ascertained that, in general, high school librarians work two hours longer per day than their individual schools are in session.

When the school librarian is an employee of the public library, vacations naturally follow public library practice where the usual rule is eleven months of service with one month of vacation on pay. If the school librarian is not needed in the school during the Christmas holidays and the summer vacation, she is likely to be scheduled for work somewhere in the public library.

Opportunities for visiting other libraries and for attending professional library gatherings are not as generally available to school librarians as they should be. The reasons may be that a substitute cannot so easily be found as for a teacher, and attending an educational meeting for which provision is made in the school calendar appears to be more logical. However, keeping the librarian on her toes as a specialist is of such consequence that opportunities for visiting and professional refreshment should certainly be found.

4. **Administrative functions and duties.** Practically no school large enough to employ a full-time librarian lacks two or three pupil helpers and a page. In consequence, someone must make out schedules, decide on the allocation of duties, and supervise performance. These are administrative functions requiring in the head librarian the qualities of the excellent executive—tact, good judgment, and business ability in addition to knowledge of effective procedures and competence in setting them up.

To the head librarian also fall such duties as deciding upon policies, determining routines, arranging with the office and with instructors for the attendance of pupils in the library and the use of its special facilities such as conference rooms, audio-visual aids, and so on. On her shoulders rests the initial responsibility for budget-making, for planning rooms and equipment, for publicity, and for developing and fostering desirable relations with other members of the school staff.

The head librarian's business responsibilities are real. Every year considerable numbers of books, periodicals, other printed and visual materials, and special supplies not available through the supply office of the school must be purchased. Fines must be accounted for, inventories taken, books sent to the binder's, insurance estimates decided upon, statistics compiled, and reports made. While some of these duties are shared with the school purchasing office or delegated to assistants, it is, in the last analysis, the head librarian's function to see that all are carried through. Outsiders frequently have little notion of how much time and attention such duties absorb. And yet, there is probably no phase of the librarian's job that

more quickly marks her as a success than her ability to keep the business of the library running smoothly and efficiently.

5. **Duties involving technical skill.** Knowing how to organize materials as well as staff is required of the head librarian. This means that she must be able to classify and catalog books and other materials according to best practice, so that pupils may not only be able to find what they want but in so doing may acquire facility in the use of standard methods and tools. The librarian must also be able to carry on indexing; to organize files; and, if necessary, to set up special routines and procedures for the organization, care, and use of audio-visual aids and, in some cases, of free textbooks. Although, as before, many such duties, or parts of them, may and should be delegated to other members of the staff, final responsibility rests with the head librarian.

6. **Educational and guidance duties.** Reading guidance, reference work, instruction in library use, list-making, and work with teachers in curriculum enrichment have already been discussed. Other duties such as the management of pupils and work with clubs and committees fall to the lot of the librarian. They are merely listed here to get them into the picture. Full treatment is given elsewhere.

7. **Public relations.** In meeting both pupils and teachers the librarian may, as someone has said, take a lesson from the filling station operator who has been carefully schooled in what to do. He greets his customers with a smile, chats cheerfully while filling the gasoline tank, throws in small services gratis, and sends the driver off with a parting admonition to come again soon.

The good librarian makes friends with associates on the school staff. She looks around for opportunities for cordial contacts and recognizes her responsibilities as a member of the school and local community. If it can be said of her that she "gets around," so much the better. She must be willing to serve on faculty and Parent Teacher Association Committees and to represent the school through speaking engagements, radio programs, contributions to the local paper, or interviews with its feature writers and reporters. She frequently visits the public library to learn what is going on there that concerns the school, to talk over plans, and to arrange for the forwarding of public library enterprises through the school. On Parents' or Carnival night she puts her best foot forward and with the help of faculty and library club fills the library with displays and demonstrations of library activity. At faculty meetings, she participates in discussion on

general school policies. She cooperates with the Art Committee if it suggests listing and indexing the art objects belonging to the school and with other groups on projects of interest to them. Such undertakings often prove of unexpected value in implementing the curriculum and stimulating pupil activity.

If the librarian discovers sore spots, she is not content to work around them but tries to heal them by finding out what is wrong and correcting it. Possibly Miss Blank's high state of dudgeon is caused by the tone of the note an assistant sent her asking the return of the book she likes to keep permanently on her desk because it saves trips down two flights of stairs to the library. The form used for faculty overdue notices may well be scrutinized. Perhaps it can be given a more courteous tone; or arrangements can be made to have future notices clear over the librarian's desk. At the same time, the uses to which the volume in question is put during its sojourn in Miss Blank's room are discussed with her. If the book is being more consistently referred to there than in the library, making a semester loan and buying a duplicate for the library shelves should be considered.

The good librarian exercises considered judgment. Administrative situations are analyzed before action is taken. The facts are ascertained and the problems they present thought through, after which they may be taken up in orderly, objective fashion with whosoever is concerned. If teachers fail to spend much time in the library, it may be because they cannot work effectively at tables crowded with pupils. If so, the librarian should consider how best to arrange for their comfort. How about the neglected little storeroom at the end of the library reading room? Could a door be put through, or an archway? The librarian figures the cost of equipping the space as a special teachers' alcove or conference room, and then, facts and figures in hand, lays her findings before the principal. It may take considerable follow-up, but the chances are that this carefully considered approach will eventually bring results, the library emerging with a much needed addition and with teacher attendance showing a marked increase.

The good librarian publicizes the library—not merely its books, but its activities. She sees that everyone knows what is going on there. The ways are many: auditorium programs with skits and movies—perhaps a "Lives of Great Men" program in which the 10 B's tell how they compiled a local *Who's Who*; use of the public address system to carry a program of book reviewing by the new Reader's Club or to announce the plan for

admission recently worked out with the aid of the student council; running a "What's Doing in the Library" column in the school paper; photographic displays of the library in action taken with a candid camera in the hands of a pupil photographer.¹⁴ Even the bare bones of the librarian's annual report to the principal may, with forethought and a modest use of literary and advertising cunning, be made to serve publicity purposes.

The good librarian takes the initiative in her special field. She looks ahead to see what is developing in the way of building additions, changes in the educational program, and so on, and is prepared. Long before the school architect has developed his blueprints for the proposed new south wing, she will have worked out floor plans for an enlarged library and talked them over with the principal, for securing his interest is the first step in getting any matter of importance under way, whether an addition to library quarters or a plan for collecting for damage to library books out of students' textbook deposits.

The good librarian acts the part of an efficient executive. She keeps her desk in order and does not let untidy piles of this and that accumulate until she appears to be buried in her own wares. Important communications are typewritten. When a matter of policy is due for discussion she lays it before the principal or the appropriate committee in written form some time in advance so that it may have careful consideration; if decisions are finally reached through oral conference, she reduces them to writing and files them away for future reference. If they affect library routines, they are incorporated in the routine book, for it is astonishing how quickly important decisions can fade into an indefinite haze in the minds of all concerned. Reference to file or manual will save time and argument.

The good librarian never forgets that she is working with a group of specialists whose advice and assistance is invaluable. The personnel of the school print shop can give expert advice when the format of the freshman library manual is under consideration or a new printed form is being planned. The shop may even undertake production of these items as well as the printing of bookmarks and lists. They have to print something, and such projects provide excellent problems as well as a school service. When the librarian must engage in statistical work, she does well to use the adding machine in the office practice room; or she gives the job to a competent pupil working under the instructor's supervision. The art de-

¹⁴ For details of these and many other publicity stunts tried in school libraries see *Activity Book Number Two*.



Each student assistant has specific responsibilities in a well-planned program

Upper-grade student assistants prepare for an elementary class visit





Pupils help run the library in their scheduled library period

Even from the workroom the librarian can easily supervise this attractive library



partment can and will be extremely helpful in setting up exhibits and producing posters if not asked to drop regularly scheduled work on too short notice. The manual training instructor will probably be willing to help reduce ideas for a new piece of library equipment to blueprint form and to assist in writing the specifications so that the cabinetmaker need commit no errors in following directions. Or the school shop may undertake to construct the equipment. The mathematics instructor looking for data to use in connection with the teaching of graphic statistics may be more than glad to turn his class loose on the presentation of circulation statistics in the form of diagrams or pictographs.

All in all, good public relations are a matter of give and take, friendly attitudes and good business psychology.¹⁵

8. **Professional vs. routine tasks.** Careful distinction should always be made between the head librarian's professional duties and tasks requiring little training and skill which can be delegated to others once policies and routines have been established. Among such tasks are charging books, checking attendance, checking periodicals, and typing book cards and pockets.

In the best libraries such duties are not assumed by the librarian except as they provide opportunity to observe discipline or to get reactions to books read. Consequently, a discovery shocking to many librarians was made not so long ago when a scientific study revealed that more than 40 per cent of expensive professional time was being spent by librarians in some eleven school libraries on nonprofessional tasks at least some of which apparently might have been turned over to others. Here are the figures:¹⁶

<i>School library activities</i>	<i>Per cent of professional time</i>
Information and reference.....	10.4
Lists and bibliographies.....	1.9
Teaching classes	3.1
Other advisory	5.8
*Circulation	19.9
*Care of room and collection.....	12.3

¹⁵ Minneapolis Public Library Staff. *Patrons Are People*. A.L.A., 1945. A clever little booklet illustrating how to meet situations graciously and with tact. Aimed at the staff of the public library, but school librarians should also read it.

¹⁶ U.S. Office of Education. *Unit Costs in a Selected Group of School Libraries*; by Mary E. Crookston. The Office, 1941, p.19. (Bulletin no. 11, 1941.)

<i>School library activities</i>	<i>Per cent of professional time</i>
Acquisition	5.9
Acquisition and care of periodicals....	1.5
Cataloging	6.0
Cataloging (nonbook)	3.0
Administration	8.3
Office work	2.5
Public relations	3.8
*School routine	9.6
Keeping time record.....	3.9
Unproductive time	2.1

In this analysis, items starred were used in arriving at the 40 per cent figure for non-professional work. The time given to "Information and reference" and "Public relations" appears particularly inadequate.

From the financial point of view, it is certainly poor economy to spend time worth \$1.50 per hour clearing up the room or putting shelves in order when the same work might be equally well done by a page earning twenty-five or thirty cents an hour. (Both figures prewar.) But far more serious is the lessening of opportunity to engage in guidance, conference, and all those other activities which make the difference between a library functioning at the highest educational level and the one leading a lockstep existence. If necessary, the attention of the principal should be directed to the need for clerical help.

9. Personal and intellectual traits. How much the success of the individual in charge of the library depends upon personality is evidenced by perennial search on the part of school administrators for librarians gifted with enthusiasm, friendliness, initiative, cooperative attitudes and mental alertness. Knowledge of books and of technical processes these administrators take for granted if the prospective librarian has adequate backgrounds of library training and experience. But that is not enough. Will she be able, they ask, to create the right library atmosphere—that something which has variously been described as a hearthstone atmosphere, an atmosphere favorable to the growth of the reading habit, an atmosphere which makes an hour spent there a satisfying and pleasurable experience? Has she health? Physical and mental buoyancy? She is going to be intimately associated for long hours with demanding, effervescent, and sometimes annoying youth. Can she take it without growing nervous and

sharp-tongued? Will her presence in the school be stimulating? Will she be able to make a real place for herself, not alone through her book knowledge, but because of an outgoing personality free of sentimentality and shot through with a sense of humor and a resiliency that laughs or shakes off small misunderstandings and minor irritations as being too trivial to upset the library applecart?

To summarize: school administrators want the individual in charge of the school library to be an extrovert rather than an introvert; one who likes people as well as books, who has an understanding but unsentimental attitude towards youth, and who can manage the affairs of her particular domain clearsightedly and with a modicum of friction.

Just how the librarian is to become possessed of all the admirable qualities required is a problem too big for these pages. Certain traits such as enthusiasm and liking for boys and girls are born with some people, and a reasonable amount of honest self-analysis suffices to determine whether they are present. Other traits may be cultivated, especially poise, freedom from pettiness, and the businesslike attitude that characterizes the good executive. The study of practical psychology helps, and so does a problem-solving attitude. Concerning the latter a specialist in the field of librarian psychology has something to say:

This means directing one's thinking and energy to the constructive solution of personal problems, rather than dissipating energy in thinking about what others may be thinking or feeling about oneself. Instead of indulging in destructive and energy-consuming worry, the well-adjusted person attempts to analyze the nature of the problem, seeks help if necessary from those best qualified to give it, works out definite plans for meeting the situation constructively, puts these plans into operation, and when he has done everything possible to solve the problem, accepts the outcome with the assurance that he has done his best. When this problem-solving attitude has become habitual, the personality will find itself free of the feelings of self-consciousness, fear, guilt, and inadequacy which afflict so many persons of really superior ability and intellect.¹⁷

IV. THE PROFESSIONAL ASSISTANT

1. **Qualifications.** Both accrediting standards and certification requirements demand for the professional assistant the same general educational and professional preparation as for the head librarian. All that has been

¹⁷ Bryan, A. I. "The Personality of the School Librarian." *Wilson Library Bulletin* 15: 132, October 1940.

said heretofore concerning personality, attitudes, and intellectual alertness also applies, as well as statements covering conditions of employment, hours of work, salary schedules and vacations.

2. **Duties.** Like the head librarian, the professional assistant ordinarily appears on the payroll as a member of the instructional staff. As a member of the library staff it is recognized that she may function successfully with somewhat less experience than the head librarian and lacking some of the latter's administrative ability. The nature of her duties rests finally with the head librarian but will be influenced by the size and nature of the total staff and by the assistant's own special aptitudes and talents. If she is an efficient cataloger, she may be made responsible for that phase of the work. If she is talented in organizing club activities or in working up exhibits and programs, she will probably find herself employing these talents. If she shows ability as a classroom instructor, she may be put in charge of instruction in the use of books and libraries. But no matter what her special talents, she may expect to share many duties with her associates; for the school library staff is never large, and many duties must be carried on interchangeably.

3. **Professional contacts and ethics.** Because of the small size of the professional group in the library, informal conference will probably take the place of formal staff meetings; and, although the final responsibility for schedules and matters of policy rests with the head librarian, they are best decided as a result of staff conference. Just as the head librarian is expected to be alert, considerate, fair, and open to suggestion, the assistant should be alert to the opportunities of her work, quick to see possibilities for improvement in her own work and in that of the library generally, and willing to make suggestions for the latter. At the same time she must be keenly aware of the demands of teamwork and exhibit willingness to cooperate in whatever policies are decided upon without displaying crest-fallen or petty attitudes. In dealing directly with pupils and teachers, the professional assistant must exhibit good judgment when necessarily assuming a large measure of personal responsibility. In seriously troublesome cases she tries by all means to act in line with general library policy, or, if there seems to be no precedent to follow, makes it a point wherever possible to delay final action until the matter can be discussed with the head of the staff, who may in turn take it to the principal or supervisor if that appears to be essential. It need scarcely be added that it is neither good manners nor good professional practice for the assistant to refer her

problem directly to the school office without first laying it before the head of the library staff.

V. THE TEACHER-LIBRARIAN

A teacher who divides her time between classroom instruction and library duties is known as a "part-time" or "teacher-librarian," more often the latter. The position has developed in response to an increasingly recognized need for library service in the small school unable to afford a full-time librarian. Lacking full professional preparation on the library side, the teacher-librarian nevertheless takes charge of many a school library, fulfilling to the limit of time and knowledge the functions of the professional librarian. Such part-time work is most satisfactory when library service is centrally directed. The teacher-librarian is relieved of technical processes such as cataloging and is aided by the suggestions of a competent supervisor. In line with such developments, courses for the teacher-librarian concentrate on acquaintanceship with reading materials, on reading guidance, reference service, and school library management.

Requirements and hours of service for the teacher-librarian are usually based on school enrollment. As an example, take the standards of the Southern Association,¹⁸ in summary as follows:

Enrollment of 100 or fewer pupils: teacher-librarian with same qualifications and educational background as teachers and basic training of at least 12 semester hours in library science; scheduled at least one-third of the teaching day for regular high school library service.

Enrollment of 101 to 300 pupils: 12 semester hours in library science; scheduled for half-time service in library.

Additional time is recommended in both enrollment brackets and must be provided if the teacher-librarian is also responsible for elementary school and community service. Credits must represent an organized program, and additional hours of training are recommended in the second bracket. Beginning with an enrollment of 301 pupils, the teacher-librarian is superseded by a full-time librarian with a full year of professional library education.

Aside from her training, the qualifications of the teacher-librarian do not differ essentially from those of the full-time professional librarian. She

¹⁸ Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. *Standards for High School Libraries . . . Effective as of the Beginning of the School Year 1948-49*, p.2. (Mimeographed statement)

should have the same outgoing, friendly attitude, and her work should be characterized by the same attention to system and business efficiency. Her vision, perspicacity, and initiative will need to be great if she is to develop her library into an effective educational instrument.

An interesting alternative to the employment of a teacher-librarian, or in some cases a supplementary arrangement, consists in providing a professional librarian to give part-time service to several small schools. Another arrangement sometimes followed in small communities is to employ a professional librarian who divides her time between the local public library and the school. However, before such a plan is put into effect it is always wise to consider whether a joint library housed in the school building might not be more economical.

Up to the present there has been little tendency to employ teacher-librarians as assistants, though there seems to be no reason why this should not be done if personality and attitudes are satisfactory and the prospective assistant is qualified to handle special tasks under the general direction of the librarian in charge. If, for example, a teacher with partial library training has a wide knowledge of books and a gift for reading guidance, she might be scheduled for floor work during certain hours of the day when not engaged in classroom teaching. Or an expert classroom teacher might undertake to carry for the library its library instruction activities. The chief caution to be observed is not to schedule teachers for such work because they are failures elsewhere or because they happen to have vacant periods. Like other members of the library staff, they should be chosen on the basis of professional and personal qualifications and because their presence in the library will definitely enhance its usefulness.¹⁹

VI. PAID NONPROFESSIONAL PERSONNEL

1. **Clerical workers.** There is considerable clerical work in every library which can and should be performed by clerical assistants. Besides engaging in many aspects of circulation work, such an assistant types correspondence, lists, orders, and reports; accessions and prepares new books for the shelves, i.e., provides them with book cards and other essentials of circulation; does alphabetizing and simple filing; and with training, is able to type catalog

¹⁹ An excellent summary of the work and training of the teacher-librarian may be found in the following: Ganser, H. A. "Teacher-Librarians." In National Society for the Study of Education. *Forty-second Yearbook, Pt. II: The Library in General Education*. 1943, p.313-15. (Distributed by the Department of Education, Univ. of Chicago.)

cards, and to add headings as indicated by the librarian on a master card or process slip.

In many situations it is open to question whether a competent clerical assistant should not be the second salaried worker added to the library staff rather than a professional assistant. In schools where the librarian is responsible for large numbers of textbooks, provision of clerical help is imperative.

Stenographic ability in clerical assistants is not as important as typing and filing skill; and, though accuracy and neatness are more important than speed, both are desirable. Since in much work at the circulation desk the clerical helper meets pupils and teachers face to face, neatness in personal appearance and pleasant, obliging attitudes are essential.

If the assistant is well trained, competent, and employed on a salary basis, remuneration, hours, and vacations should be comparable with those of other office workers in the school system.

Help from the office practice class may sometimes be secured as a partial substitute for paid clerical work. By arrangement with the instructor, advanced students are scheduled for practical experience under the supervision of the librarian who holds them to first-class performance and reports on their work to the instructor so that proper credit may be given. Such assistance is most successfully utilized for correspondence and general office work. Since the pupils work in short shifts it is seldom worth while to attempt to train them to assist in cataloging processes.

2. **Unclassified help.** In the school library at the present time the page is usually the sole member of the staff in this category. As a rule he is a pupil who looks after mechanical tasks not performed by the janitorial force. Periodically he clears tables of books and other materials, puts all back in place, and "reads" the shelves, i.e., sees that the books stand neatly in classified order. He may also run errands, deliver books to classrooms, receive and stamp periodicals, and unpack new books and loans from the central library. He is paid on an hourly basis, and his work is usually so arranged that it can be accomplished during his vacant periods, before and after school, and during the lunch hour. Like other members of the staff, he should be courteous, cheerful, neat, willing, and dependable. The last needs emphasis in order to prevent his undertaking the work on a happy-go-lucky basis which becomes maddening in its lack of reliability and is the worst possible preparation for future jobs.

Special menders and binders may be employed, though mending is

more often carried on as interim work by other members of the staff,²⁰ while binding, except for the reinforcing of pamphlet and periodical covers or inserting such materials in temporary binders, is left to a skilled library binder outside the school. Excellent manuals providing instruction in all these activities are available. (See list in the bibliography at the end of Chapter XII.)

VII. PUPIL ASSISTANTS

The educational world is at the present time sharply aware of the desirability of work experience for pupils. But, states the American Association of School Administrators, although such experience undertaken for pay as well as "unpaid service to the school or community both have a place in the lives of students," the opportunities for work experience existing in every school have not as a rule been utilized.²¹

In the light of such a statement, it is greatly to the credit of school libraries both elementary and secondary that for a long time they have very generally provided work experience. In fact, the school in which pupils are not participating voluntarily in library tasks is the exception rather than the rule.

1. **Values in work experience.** The educational value of work experience depends on factors which should be well understood by the librarian. To begin with, it is essential that the tasks assumed by pupils have variety and challenge. There are, to be sure, undeniable values in merely performing a routine job faithfully and accurately over a considerable period: development of perseverance, loyalty, pride in workmanship, and responsibility. But a routine task too long continued tends to lose its educational value since it presents no challenge and has no variety. It may easily become pupil exploitation, the school unjustifiably saving money at the pupil's expense.

To be of full value educationally, work should be competently supervised. The pupil should be learning excellent work habits. It is not enough merely to introduce him to a routine or to show him how to carry out a simple process. Nor is it enough to stay with him until he gives evidence of mastery. Constant checking is required thereafter to make sure that he does not fall into slovenly habits or acquire unfortunate attitudes.

²⁰ In some large systems, all repair work save that of an emergency nature is done by the central library or by workers sent out periodically from a central office.

²¹ American Association of School Administrators. *Twenty-first Yearbook: Schools and Manpower*. The Association, 1943, chapter 2.

Promptness, dependability, neatness, cooperativeness, accuracy, and willingness to accept and act upon criticism are points to be insisted upon as well as courtesy towards other workers and those served.

In the library, as elsewhere, work acquires additional value when it provides experience in problem-solving. Working out reference problems may be cited as an example; or evolving and submitting to the librarian a plan for the re-arrangement of magazine files in a crowded cupboard.

Also among educational values not to be overlooked is the fact, writes Lewis, that "knowledge and understanding of library arrangement and procedures . . . will pay dividends . . . not only in school and college but throughout his [the pupil's] future career."²²

Nor should the vocational values in library work experience go unnoticed continues Miss Lewis:

Here . . . is opportunity for the high school girl to discover whether her interest in library work is kindling to a live vocational interest, and here is the librarian's chance to enlist recruits for her profession intelligently and with discrimination. Through group and individual discussions, the pupil should be led to think about the various library jobs in relation to his abilities and interests. In other words, his vocational plans should be consistently reconsidered in the light of actual library experience.

The social values of voluntary work on the part of pupils are impressive. Helping in the library, they learn not only how to work with and for others, but in many cases acquire confidence and poise. The parents of one shy, tongue-tied girl watched happily as she developed a gracious, confident bearing, largely, they felt, through experience as a circulation assistant. Responsibility for some small segment of library work has more than once resulted in a complete change of attitude on the part of an unruly or problem boy. Nor is this all. Voluntary work in the library is a form of social service in performing which the pupil has a consciousness of serving the school community in an altruistic way.

2. **What the librarian gains.** Rendering valuable aid to the librarian is not in itself a sufficient reason for pupil participation in library work except insofar as it develops in the pupil the habit of helpfulness and in other ways brings about desirable attitudes. The librarian's job will undoubtedly be more pleasurable, and from the point of view of discipline, far easier when shared with a group of eager and willing helpers whose very presence

²² Lewis, H. B. "The School Library as a Work Experience Laboratory." Unpublished report on experiments made in the Cleveland, Ohio public schools.

adds immeasurably to a homelike atmosphere. Relieved to a certain extent of simple routine tasks, the librarian will have more time for reading guidance and other forms of personal work. But the one who turns over to pupils circulation work or other library jobs as a means of lightening her personal work load will be disappointed. In the first place, pupil help is a constantly shifting entity. Each term, if not oftener, new relays of boys and girls must be taught how to perform new tasks, and afterwards must be supervised—duties which may absorb nearly as much of the librarian's time as doing the work herself. Again, a pupil's work engagements in the library must not interfere with his other duties as a learner. His free periods may be few and irregularly distributed throughout the week. Altogether, the paper work involved in making out his library schedule and assigning his tasks on arrival takes valuable time which might be used to very good advantage otherwise.

Yet in spite of the time and energy which must be spent in order to make pupil participation in library work function successfully, most school librarians still think it well worth the trouble.

3. Scheduling. On the whole, a pupil assistant should not be scheduled for a minimum of less than two periods per week since otherwise he tends to forget the instructions given him and his experience is too limited to be of much value. In many cases, pupils are glad to put in more than this minimum time, and as long as it does not interfere with scholarship, should probably be allowed to do so.

Although responsibility for training and supervision cannot be side-stepped by the librarian, difficulties in scheduling can usually be surmounted, especially where the principal is interested and on the alert to facilitate the pupil's work experience. In the library itself, one way of circumventing the difficulty imposed by the school timetable is to schedule by jobs rather than by periods. That is, each assistant chooses a special task to be carried out regularly and methodically at such times as are most convenient. One keeps the magazine files in order, one shelves books, one mends, and so on. Among the advantages claimed for this plan is that it develops expertness in a particular job. But it is obvious that some rotation of tasks will have to be arranged if pupil experience is to be fully satisfactory.

4. Training classes. Another way of surmounting scheduling difficulties as well as others, such as the time required for individual instruction, is gathering assistants into a class or a club entitled to curricular credits or honor points. A class meets at regular hours and its members are expected

to devote definite amounts of time to study or practice work. Clubs also have regular hours for meeting, sometimes arranged through a so-called "activity period" within the school day. Here again members are expected to give time and effort to the furtherance of the club program. The advantages of using these vehicles for training in library service are obvious.

How ambitious the library training course is will depend largely on the time which the librarian can devote to it and the amount and nature of the credit available. It is easy to err on the side of over-comprehensiveness. After all, few if any of those enrolled expect to become librarians, though it is to be hoped some may have their attention definitely turned to library service as a vocation. The primary aim is to develop skill in and understanding of the many simple routines and processes, chiefly clerical and mechanical, which can successfully be performed by amateurs. A few ambitious courses go beyond clerical and manual tasks, enlarging considerably upon the lessons in library use offered to all students. Book selection and the use of special reference tools are emphasized, and members of the class are encouraged to undertake the simpler aspects of floor work: helping pupils find books and other materials, answering less complicated reference questions.

5. **Duties.** Ordinarily, the duties taken over by volunteer assistants are limited, circulation work being the field most often assigned. Assistants readily learn to record loans, file and sort book cards, take care of reserves, and so on. At the desk they enjoy a certain prestige and learn to be tactful and assured, accurate and businesslike, and to take responsibility seriously. From the point of view of personal development, their time is well spent regardless of possible credits and service awards.

Clerical tasks outside of circulation work may also be assigned, but the amount of instruction and supervision required suggests leaving most such tasks to paid clerical helpers or to students trained in office practice.

Among the mechanical duties which pupil assistants may perform are page work; stamping and labeling; mounting clippings and pictures; and certain tasks connected with the care and use of audio-visual equipment as when, through a joint arrangement, a boy is coached and directed by one of the science instructors in the operation and care of apparatus owned by the library.

6. **The staff manual.** In inducting pupil assistants into their jobs, and other assistants too for that matter, a staff manual or routine book is a time-saver. It may be a notebook, preferably loose-leaf, in which are listed

DUTIES OF THE SCHOOL LIBRARY STAFF

LIBRARIAN AND PROFESSIONAL ASSISTANTS

PUPIL, CLERICAL, MECHANICAL ASSISTANTS

PROFESSIONAL WORK

CLERICAL WORK

MECHANICAL WORK

ADMINISTRATIVE

TECHNICAL

EDUCATIONAL

Directing library policy
Scheduling and supervising staff
Programming pupil attendance
Planning library quarters
Planning and arranging equipment
Planning publicity, public relations, etc.
Business administration
Budget making
Working with central office
Determining routines, rules, etc.
Organizing circulation work
Making reports
Cooperating with:
Public library
Supervisors
Pupil organizations
Making contacts with:
Parents and teachers and their organizations
Professional organizations
Publicity work

Evaluating
Books
Periodicals
Audio-visual aids
Pamphlets and miscellany
Selecting
Books
Periodicals
Audio-visual aids
Pamphlets and miscellany
Acquiring
Books
Periodicals
Audio-visual aids
Pamphlets and miscellany
Preparing displays, etc.
Classifying
Cataloging
Shelf-listing
Indexing
Filing in catalog
Carrying out binding routines
Organizing audio-visual aids and pamphlet collections
Organizing lending system
Keeping up on professional reading

Reference work
Bibliography making
Reading guidance
Library instruction
Project making
Assisting teachers in project making, curriculum enrichment, professional improvement
Assisting parents and teachers in reading guidance, pupil adjustments
Preparing exhibits
Studying curriculum
Directing clubs
Attending faculty meetings, teachers' conventions, etc.
Serving on curriculum committees
Reading educational literature
Visiting classes
Maintaining discipline

Typing
Correspondence
Bibliographies and lists
Orders: books, supplies, etc.
Request letters
Overdue notices
Fine notices
Circulating books
Filing
Circulation
Clippings
Pictures
Periodicals
Checking orders
Taking inventory
Keeping statistical records
Checking attendance
Accessioning
Checking periodicals

Shelving and shelf reading
Labeling
Books
Pamphlets
Pictures
Posters
Signs
Pasting and stamping books
Mending books
Caring for periodicals
Mounting pictures
Collating books
Cleaning books
Library housekeeping (i.e., picking up, arranging chairs, etc.)
Labeling and caring for audio-visual aids and operating mechanical apparatus

NOTE: This chart was originally developed on the basis of a duty analysis made under the direction of Dr. W. W. Charters and as a part of the American Library Association Curriculum Study. It has been revised from time to time to meet new conditions.

and described all library jobs and routines, accompanied by careful directions for performing the work. (See illustration Chapter XI.) To the pupil about to undertake, for example, the pocketing and pasting of new books, the librarian hands the routine book or a mimeographed sheet copied from it. There are set forth all the small details which would otherwise have to be furnished by word of mouth: where the book pockets, paste, and brushes are stored; just how far from the bottom of the inside back cover of the library book the pockets are to be attached; how the brushes are to be disposed of when the job is completed.

7. **Selection of pupil assistants.** Various methods are used for selecting pupil helpers. In some schools, anyone may volunteer by making personal application at the library. In other schools, volunteers arrive as the result of preliminary sorting and suggestion on the part of study hall teachers, home room teachers or counselors, sometimes with an eye on vocational guidance. The last is undoubtedly an angle of selection to which, in the light of the current need for library recruiting, more attention should consistently be paid.

Sometimes enrollment as a pupil assistant is limited to upper-class groups or to those having excellent scholastic records. On the other hand, counselors and principals may agree that the personal development and sense of responsibility derived from this form of school service may be precisely the spur needed to stir the reluctant or discouraged pupil to greater scholastic effort; and many librarians have watched happily as this spur has worked.

Whether or not scholastic barriers are to be set up, a pupil may well be required, as a preliminary to acceptance as a member of the library staff, to present a formal letter of application, complete with personal history and "references" supplied by teachers. This puts the matter on a business basis, besides being excellent training in how to go about getting a job anywhere.

8. **Experimentation.** Not all librarians are enthusiastic about pupil assistants. In the face of divergent opinions, perhaps the best the new school librarian can do is to carry on a modest experiment when opportunity opens, evaluating the results with care, and setting up the final program in the light of experience, with, of course, the acquiescence of the principal if not his immediate enthusiastic support. Sometimes principals, like librarians, have to be shown. As elsewhere, demonstration is frequently more effective than argument.

VIII. STAFF ORGANIZATION, RESPONSIBILITY AND SCHEDULING

1. **The line of authority.** The foregoing analysis of staff duties and relationships does not leave a great deal to be said on the side of staff organization. It is obvious that the line of authority extends downward from head librarian to professional assistants, then to clerical, unclassified and pupil help, the head librarian herself being responsible to the principal and working by and with the advice of the school library supervisor if there is one. A faculty advisory committee is occasionally proposed but is rarely found except, perhaps, in private schools or elsewhere in connection with book selection. All important questions of policy and of routine affecting the school as a whole are taken up with the principal and the supervisor by the head librarian and are put into effect only after approval has been secured. As will appear in Chapter XI, all business transactions are carried on through or with the consent of the business office of the school.

BOOKLAND HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARY STAFF SCHEDULE FOR _____ (dates)				
	<i>Before school</i>	<i>Per 1</i>	<i>Per 2</i>	<i>Per 3</i>
Mon.	Librarian F Prof. ass't. D Pupil ass't. D	Librarian W Prof. ass't. D and F Page S Clerical ass't. D	Librarian A Prof. ass't. D and F Pupil ass't. M Clerical ass't. T	Librarian W Prof. ass't. D and F Pupil ass't. M Clerical ass't. T
Tue.	"	"	Librarian C Prof. ass't. F Pupil ass't. D Clerical ass't. T	Librarian C Prof. ass't. F Pupil ass't. D Clerical ass't. T
Wed.	"	Librarian F Prof. ass't. W Clerical ass't. D	Librarian F Prof. ass't. W Pupil ass't. D Clerical ass't. T	Librarian F Prof. ass't. W Pupil ass't. D Clerical ass't. T

Symbols

A—Auditorium
D—Desk
F—Floor work (reference, etc.)
C—Class in use of library

M—Mending, pasting, etc.
S—Shelving and picking up
T—Typing
W—Workroom (cataloging, etc.)

2. The schedule. A staff schedule in a large school is shown in the example from the Bookland High School library. In a small school, or even in a large one, the schedule may be less detailed. While, as far as possible, the principal duties of the various members are assigned in line with their special aptitudes, provision should be made for variety in the day's program. Floor work alternates with periods devoted to technical processes; list-making and other sedentary duties are interrupted with periods devoted to instruction and reading guidance. In the small staff, such shifting of duties is inescapable; in the large one it is desirable.

Where a librarian has no paid help, operation of the library during lunch periods can, as heretofore suggested, be turned over to pupil assistants. And when, in the same circumstances, attendance is by regularly scheduled groups, the school office should make the same provision for one or more free periods for the librarian as it customarily makes for teachers.

IX. THE PRINCIPAL AND THE LIBRARIAN

Throughout this chapter, emphasis has been placed on the duty of the librarian to cooperate heartily with school officials as well as with teachers. But cooperation cannot be wholly one-sided. The superintendent of schools, and more immediately the principal, both owe a cooperative and understanding attitude to the librarian. Without this, no librarian can hope to function successfully in the long run. Consequently, it is heartening to note a growing recognition on the part of school administrators of their responsibilities where the library is concerned. Enumerating the principal's responsibilities, Coulbourn²³ suggests they embrace the planning of library quarters with the aid of the librarian; securing of appropriations for equipment and books; deciding on size of staff and selecting personnel; recognizing the librarian's function in curriculum development; interpreting the library to teachers and pupils and to the public.

Wherever the principal fully realizes and acts upon such responsibilities, the library attains its highest development. On the librarian's side, there is constant necessity to lend strength to the principal's arm when dealing with the practical problems of finance and the public inertia, which are among the limitations under which he works, by keeping him provided with significant facts and figures and plenty of information about the educational activities of the library.

²³ Coulbourn, John. *Administering the School Library*. Educational Publishers, 1942. "Guide to Action" series, no.3.

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The most recent statement of standards from an authoritative source.

CECIL, H. L., and HEAPS, W. A. *School Library Service in the United States.* Wilson, 1940, p.121-26.

A summary accompanied by outlines of certification plans followed in New York and California.

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The results of a study of 2878 high school libraries of varied sizes in the twenty states included in the North Central Association show to what extent commonly accepted standards for the professional preparation of librarians have been met. An interesting table (p.217) covers the professional status and working relationships of the high school librarian, while other tables (p.208-10) indicate the types of nonprofessional help employed and the nature of their compensation.

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NOTE: A compilation of state certification requirements issued from time to time in mimeographed form by the American Library Association may be had on request. But state requirements change so frequently the safest way of ascertaining them is to write the state department directly.

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The roles of superintendent and principal in strengthening the hand of the librarian and in underwriting library development well stated by a school administrator.

Student Conduct

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- | | |
|---|--|
| I. Introduction | 5. Activity |
| II. Aims | 6. Librarian attitudes |
| III. <i>Factors Influencing Conduct</i> | 7. Penalties |
| 1. Psychological factors | 8. Relations with office |
| 2. Individual differences | |
| 3. Physical surroundings | VI. <i>Pupil Participation in Control of Conduct</i> |
| 4. School morale | 1. Authoritarian vs. democratic control |
| IV. <i>Interpreting Aims for Pupils</i> | 2. Development of responsibility |
| V. <i>Pointers for the Librarian</i> | 3. The library committee (or board) |
| 1. Dealing with the individual | |
| 2. The personal conference | VII. <i>Pupil Self-government</i> |
| 3. Interest in pupils' affairs | 1. Organization |
| 4. Pupil codes | 2. Obstacles and winning factors |
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I. INTRODUCTION

How does the library react when the door opens in the middle of a period to admit a newcomer? Does everyone look up, and do centers of disorder develop as soon as the visitor engages the attention of the librarian? Or does the swing of the door fail to cause a ripple because most of the room is too absorbed to notice it? Is there a hush-hush quality about the atmosphere that has the explosive tendencies of a pressure cooker devoid of its vent? Or is there the low murmur of subdued voices and the quiet of purposeful movement—a stream running smoothly, contained within its banks but not held back? Is the approaching end of the period marked by restlessness, the slamming of books hastily dropped, giggles and sly kicks under the table; or is it marked by increased concentration on the part of pupils here and there to get that last page read, by a line at the reserve desk to return borrowed volumes, by orderly preparation for departure accompanied by a hum of low-pitched voices? And when the bell rings, is there a wild scramble like that of a stampeding herd; or is there laughing and talking but an orderly change with pupil monitors at the door to maintain lines and direct traffic?

Examples of both sorts of library conduct exist. One represents the inexcusably poor management, or lack of it, fostered by situations in which the entire atmosphere of the school is unsocial and undisciplined; the other, a goal achieved with a minimum of difficulty where the library exists in a highly socialized school environment and itself offers opportunities for supervised activity, work experience, and experience in democratic living.

The principles underlying excellent control of pupil and the methods used to make it effective and character-developing form the subject-matter of the present chapter.

II. AIMS

In matters of conduct, the school librarian deals with immaturity and the ultimate aim should be to help pupils develop the moral and social attitudes essential to successful living in the school community and well-adjusted adult existence in a democratic society. More specifically, the goal to be achieved may be stated thus: to secure conduct conducive to the profitable use of the library and its resources, i.e., conduct that does not interfere with or infringe upon the rights of others; that is characterized by a cooperative spirit and cheerful acceptance of reasonable regulations; that provides experience in self-management and democratic living.

III. FACTORS INFLUENCING CONDUCT

1. **Psychological factors.** Obviously, methods used must be based on an understanding of the psychology of youth at varying age-levels. An enumeration of a few of the factors involved may be helpful. Among them is gregariousness. Boys and girls like to work and play together and to do a lot of talking. If talking is disallowed, there is note-writing to fall back upon and sign language. Physical and emotional exuberance are at their height in the secondary school. Girls have "crushes"; and boys are sure that those in authority "have it in for them." Freedom is dear—without adequate realization of the limitations on freedom imposed by the necessities of social living. Having to perform school tasks and conform to school and library routine are infringements on the right to do as one pleases. Love of fun is as natural as the desire to play. People are funny, events are funny, laughter is contagious, and failure on the part of those who are in authority to recognize this puts them in a wholly alien class.

The crowd is extremely important. To be different in dress, or speech,

or action is painful; and to violate the accepted ethical code (by being a tell-tale, for example) is inexcusable. But the individual is extraordinarily important too. The desire for personal recognition may be heavily blanketed under bashfulness; or it may be heralded abroad by the "show-off"; but in either case the desire for personal recognition is to be reckoned with.

2. **Individual differences.** Factors individual in character which influence conduct are too numerous to be listed. But two or three of the more common causes of trouble may be noted in passing. There is, for example, mental brilliancy or its opposite—the one leading to mischief and unsocial behavior because school work presents little challenge or occupies too little of the individual's time; the other, to sullenness or a possible chip-on-the-shoulder attitude unconsciously used as a mental camouflage. And there are social maladjustments caused by anything from poverty and poor home backgrounds to physical disfigurement, emotional instability, or previous experience with tactless, authoritarian discipline. For further discussion consult any authoritative volume on mental hygiene for youth, personality development, or school discipline.

3. **Physical surroundings.** Physical surroundings have much to do with conduct, as a librarian learns to her sorrow when confronted with an overcrowded room unattractive in appearance, devoid of a noiseless floor covering, and equipped with furniture bearing the autographs of past generations of whittlers. Again and again the educational field reports the wholesome impact on school morale of a new building, or even of fresh paint and restful lighting. What is true of the school as a whole is naturally true of the library. One of the best incentives to proper conduct is a noiseproof, attractive room with furniture spaced to avoid crowding and undesirable physical contact.

In view of the tendency in some quarters to accept noise as the normal accompaniment of living in a mechanical age, and of the occasional open questioning of the desirability of maintaining a quiet library, the evidence from boys and girls themselves is worth considering. In the course of a public relations survey, 60 per cent of "We, the students" in a metropolitan high school (enrollment 2515) checked "silence" as the thing they liked best about their library.¹ Pupils' impressions of the library as revealed in their themes and conversation are equally significant: "It's nice

¹ Clarke, E. K. "We, the Students." *Wilson Library Bulletin* 15:502-3, February 1941.

and quiet there. I can really think"; or, "When I am in the library it's like in a church and is better for me."

Nor are pupils alone in their testimony. Psychologists have much to say about the value to noise-ridden boys and girls in having places of retreat removed from the clatter of crowded homes, blaring radios, and the general din of living. Apparently there is still much to be said in favor of keeping "one chair dusted for the dreamer of dreams" and encouraging mental concentration through quiet. Not much profitable study or dreaming gets done in a hubbub.

4. **School morale.** The intangible something called school morale which makes all the difference between the simple code "It isn't done" and the roistering bedlam arising from lack of organization and discipline is a matter of supreme consequence, for it is the backdrop against which all library conduct is played. The librarian for whom the stage is already favorably set by the existence of a high degree of school pride and social organization is in luck, for the pupils who come to the library will be ready and willing to contribute to a high type of social living therein if she gives them half a chance. All they need is skillful guidance backed up by their recognition of her leadership, ability, fairness, interest, and enthusiasm. On the other hand, the librarian confronted with lack of general school morale will not have such an easy start. Nevertheless, such a situation furnishes a challenge worth taking up, particularly if the principal senses the difficulties involved, is himself engaged in a campaign for improvement, and is ready to lend moral support. After all, the library, with its atmosphere of informality and its invitation to exploration and mental recreation as well as to serious study, has a real advantage that may be exploited to the benefit of the school as a whole. Under skillful guidance it may actually become a germinating center for better morale throughout the school. Too difficult to tackle? Yes, for the easily discouraged; but not for the wise, the inventive, and the strong of heart.

IV. INTERPRETING AIMS FOR PUPILS

Perhaps the biggest hurdle for the librarian intent on developing desirable conduct is securing student recognition of library aims. If an organized library is a new experience for the pupils they have to learn its value by experience and observation.

A series of library orientation periods, such as those discussed earlier, scheduled to reach everyone enrolled in the school may be helpful. At

least they provide a positive approach: "this is what the library is for; these are the privileges it extends; these are its resources; this is how you borrow a book." There are few "thou shalt not's"; instead, a few rules of the road to avoid collision: get an admission slip because without it the way is blocked; converse chiefly with the librarian because she wishes to help you answer your questions and is probably the one who can best tell you what you want to know.

Securing understanding of the purposes of the library in such ways is less difficult than securing acquiescence in the kind of conduct that builds character. For the pupil is only vaguely interested in the enrichment of his personality and the formation of character. What he is principally seeking is personal pleasure and a chance to do as he pleases. Complete freedom of movement, satisfying the gregarious instinct through conversation, showing off, releasing physical and emotional steam by making a noise, and other prerogatives dear to his heart are all in competition with library aims. Consequently, if he has had little training in the art of community living, library restrictions will at first have to be imposed by the librarian but with a gradually lightening hand as the privileges of the library come to be appreciated and the obvious desire of the librarian to substitute pupil cooperation for her own undivided authority becomes apparent.

V. POINTERS FOR THE LIBRARIAN

1. **Dealing with the individual.** When restlessness or disorder invades the whole room, the impulse is to lecture or penalize the entire group. But a far better approach is to try quietly to ascertain where the disturbance centers and call to account the individuals responsible for it. The accounting should be private, individual, and unannounced save to the person or persons concerned. Usually a personal conference is arranged before the day is over, if not immediately.

2. **The personal conference.** What happens at the conference depends on circumstances. An appeal to pride or to fair play may be all that is needed. If not, it is important to find out why. Perhaps the librarian begins by asking the pupil why he thinks he has been called to account. If this step is taken almost anything can happen. Conversation may reveal that he believes himself to be the victim of a personal grudge on the part of the librarian; or it may lead to other revelations—enlightening on both sides. It may even prove that the librarian has misunderstood the situation entirely. But in any case it tends to clear the air and to eliminate the

feeling of antagonism that is so often an incentive to further dereliction.

If the interview is the climax of many misdeeds, one method successfully used is worth passing on, though many others are equally good if not better in certain cases. It consists in giving the pupil the choice of remaining out of the library indefinitely or of preparing in written form, signing, and presenting to the librarian for filing, a contract in which he agrees on his word of honor to do his best in the future and to refrain from practices that are annoying and unsocial. If the signer makes good, the contract is in due time torn up as being no longer necessary.²

In all cases, it is important to distinguish between pranks due to high spirits and love of fun and those due to malicious, calculated mischief. Someone has written of "cheerful chidings"—quiet warnings issued in private without overemphasis upon original sin when the offense obviously belongs in the category of the unplanned and spontaneous.. Calculated wrongdoing of course demands more serious treatment and careful investigation of impelling causes—perhaps with the aid of the school counselor or of office records.

3. Interest in pupils' affairs. Sincere interest in what the student is doing, both for himself and for the school, is an open sesame to good will and cooperation. He does not deliberately create trouble for someone who takes pains to express admiration for his contribution to the pottery exhibit or who stops him as he passes the desk to hope his lame ankle is not going to keep him out of Friday's game.

4. Pupil codes. The librarian should remember that boys and girls have their own ethical codes—as, for instance, in the matter of removing a book from the library without benefit of the charging system. This, according to the prevailing code, may not be stealing, but merely "swiping"; for the book is going to be returned someday as surreptitiously as it was removed, and no particular harm done, so reasons the pupil. The most effective approach to such misdemeanors is from the angle of fair play. What is not fair to the crowd should not be done.

5. Activity. The librarian also does well to remember that keeping boys and girls busy and interested is the best possible deterrent from mischief. Some who come to the library are not now, and perhaps never will be, enthusiastic readers or reference workers. But for one reason or another they are there; and if the printed page will not keep them from restlessness

² Hurley, R. J. "Contracting for Voluntary Discipline." *Wilson Library Bulletin* 14:374-76, January 1940.

and disorder, perhaps looking at pictures will, or working on a publicity project, or helping with the mechanical and clerical tasks with which the library abounds. Charging books at the circulation desk and running down overdues have a strong appeal here, for they encourage a sense of responsibility and keep the pupil more or less in the public eye, the latter of which is something greatly desired by many.

6. **Librarian attitudes.** Poise, frankness, and complete lack of any show of personal irritation are goals eminently worth striving for, however hard to attain. Fortunately pupils do not expect any librarian to be a saint. An occasional display of righteous indignation has its value as well as continuous sweetness and light.

Probably the most effective safeguard against irritation is a well-developed sense of humor. The more the librarian laughs with her patrons the better; for that, too, shows she is human. But to laugh at them or to indulge in sarcasm at their expense is to use a dangerous weapon. Personal humiliation makes enemies instead of friends and fails to encourage a change in attitude except in rare cases where the object of the rapier thrust knows that the judgment of his own crowd, as revealed by their obvious appreciation of the prick to his vanity, is against him rather than for him.

7. **Penalties.** Since the majority of problems in conduct arising in the library are offenses against group welfare, the logical penalty would seem to be loss of privileges enjoyed by the group; particularly, temporary banishment until there is evidence of willingness to resume a cooperative attitude.

When attendance is voluntary, or even under a scheduled plan when the pupil's experience of "library periods" has been sufficiently pleasant to place them in the category of events looked forward to, withdrawal of the privilege of attendance may be not only logical but salutary. It is not particularly difficult to manage since there is probably a study hall or home room to which the culprit may be sent. But under a scheduled plan of attendance where a separate study hall is nonexistent, the problem of where to send the trouble-maker is a real one, and the measures to be taken will undoubtedly call into play all the librarian's ingenuity and knowledge of psychology. Sometimes fixed seating arrangements are resorted to, care being taken to insulate the restless and inattentive by surrounding them with more serious companions. Or individuals may be temporarily segregated in office or workroom preliminary to a personal conference. In this connection, there is much to be said in favor of in-

cluding in library equipment a number of individual reading desks. Where this is done, pupils aware of their propensity for mischief when too closely associated with others may voluntarily isolate themselves.

One privilege which should not be withdrawn is that of using library materials, for to do this is to interfere with the pupil's ability to meet his assignments, and so make a bad matter worse. Teachers not understanding or not approving the restriction may complicate the matter further. Except where mutilation or misuse of library property is the offense, the pupil should retain his borrowing privileges. But the time when he may avail himself of other library privileges may be limited to before or after school hours.

8. **Relations with office.** One thing no librarian can afford to do is to dump problems of conduct on the office. To do so is to advertise personal inadequacy to the pupils and to create in the office itself a most unfavorable impression.

Though referral of discipline cases to the principal or his assistants should be a last resort, it is nevertheless desirable to have a clear understanding with the head of the school as to where the boundaries of authority lie between matters that are purely library problems and those which impinge upon other departments or are related to school policy as a whole and must necessarily be taken up through the office. An example of such a problem is stealing—either of library property or of personal property within the library. Minor thefts can be dealt with by the librarian acting independently; but more serious cases are school problems which may require drastic measures and the bringing of parents or the juvenile court into the picture. The administrative office of the school is inevitably involved. Just where the lines of authority may lie in any particular case cannot be foreseen, but early discussion with the principal of the whole problem of theft or of other problems having possibilities of becoming serious will save the librarian embarrassing situations and aid materially in final solutions.

VI. PUPIL PARTICIPATION IN CONTROL OF CONDUCT

1. **Authoritarian vs. democratic control.** So far the control of student conduct has been presented as being largely authoritarian. The librarian decides what is best for the group, makes what rules there are, and enforces them.

But this is far from ideal. Even in cases where the librarian's rule is

benevolent, is inspired by high purposes, and is acquiesced in with a minimum of friction, she is almost inevitably cast in the role of the disciplinarian who walks softly but carries a big stick. More important than this, a serious question arises as to whether the library under these circumstances provides the maximum opportunity for the development of pupil character and experience in democratic living.

Most thoughtful librarians believe it does not; and so by every means practicable they tend to eliminate themselves from the authoritarian role to assume instead the functions of guides and counselors.

2. **Development of responsibility.** Except where pupil participation in the management of school affairs is already an established practice in the school, the change from authoritarian to democratic rule in the library may have to be a gradual process, though there have been cases where a sudden and almost complete overturn of established autocratic methods not only worked in the library but set the pace for the rest of the school.

If the change is to be evolutionary rather than revolutionary, a first step, initiated during the time the librarian is demonstrating that she can keep excellent order on her own if she so desires, may well be sharing in the work of the library as described in Chapter VI. The outcomes of library work experience in the development of responsibility, personality and good citizenship need not be repeated. A perfectly logical development is the gradual inclusion of the pupil staff or service club in functions bearing on conduct. They may, for example, act in an advisory capacity when changes in admission arrangements are being considered or when the desirability of rules such as those governing conversation in the library is under advisement.

3. **The library committee (or board).** If these initial experiments work well, a next step may be providing for the election by the student body of a library committee or board whose function it will be to work cooperatively with the librarian in matters touching on conduct, attendance, book losses and similar matters. This step is important because it is an initial move in the direction of democratic control. The committee may be elected from the school at large, or it may be made up of representatives from home rooms, classes, or school organizations such as the debate league, the athletic club, the Latin club, and others. If a student council exists, the committee should probably be organized under the general direction of that council so that pupil participation in library management may tie in with similar participation throughout the school.

Among possible activities of the committee are the adoption of a code of ethics for the library;³ cooperation with the librarian in seeing that the code is carried out, perhaps with the help of monitors and student-managed discipline courts; aid in cutting down overdues and book mutilation; the adoption and promulgation of rules governing attendance. Other activities will undoubtedly develop as situations demand attention. But one point should be clear. The committee under discussion here is not identical with the pupil clubs, squads or work groups of the last chapter. The aim there was work experience and the development of helpful attitudes; here it is participation in management by democratically elected representatives—quite a different matter.

Armbands, buttons, and other insignia are useful in providing identification and in catering justifiably to pupil pride. What young American does not enjoy wearing a badge?

Like the traffic committee, the auditorium committee or the athletic committee, the library committee becomes part and parcel of the school activity program. If the school enjoys a membership in the National Honor Society, or provides honor awards on its own, members of the student library organization are eligible for honors as are members of any other group. Inevitably, a good deal of time and effort will have to be devoted by the members to making and carrying out their plans; but since the work lies in the category of school service, honors appear to be more logical than the academic credits sometimes available when, as members of a staff engaging in library work, pupils receive instruction in and learn how to carry on library processes.

VII. PUPIL SELF-GOVERNMENT

With growing experience in the management of conduct, pupils become increasingly self-governing. They may develop, maintain and enforce a student conduct program of their own through democratic machinery which they set up for the purpose under a charter or statement of delegated authority emanating from the principal. Since in the last analysis the principal and the librarian are responsible to the community for what takes place in the library, this delegation of power is carefully defined, its areas are plainly indicated, and the possibility of veto made clear. But within bounds the conduct or self-government board is free to determine lines of

³ See the code prepared by students in a western high school as reported in the *Wilson Library Bulletin* 11:543, April 1937.

action, fix upon procedures, and designate the officers immediately responsible for carrying out the program. More than that, the board provides machinery for the adjudication of cases in dispute and for the imposing of penalties. In all this, certain members of the faculty such as the student counselor and the librarian act in an advisory capacity.

1. **Organization.** Details of student government organization can be found in educational literature (see articles listed in the bibliography at the end of this chapter) but a good example of the progressive development of library student government in one school follows.

The plan was at first operated through a Girl's League and a Boy's Federation enrolling the entire student body. At the beginning of every semester, the president of each organization appointed two members to a library board painstakingly selected on the basis of ability and general fitness. These four selected a fifth board member and proceeded to organize for the administration of such library affairs as had been outlined by the librarian and principal in a library bill of rights. Rules for library conduct and penalties for infringement were agreed upon and publicized through the school paper and in the course of an auditorium program devoted to the new experiment. Working with the office, the board arranged plans for attendance which they believed would prevent overcrowding and truancy. For each period of the day, they appointed a head clerk and two assistants responsible under the board for enforcing rules and maintaining proper conduct. At their discretion these officers might issue warnings or suspend pupils from the library for limited periods of time, always in the knowledge that should an offender so desire he might present his case at a weekly meeting of the board in which it sat as a court. A card record of all cases was kept by the board secretary who also sent written notice of the action taken to the office and to the study hall concerned. The card was filed in the library for the convenience of clerks and librarian.

When, after some years, the Girl's League and the Boy's Federation became the nucleus for a student council following the pattern of the local form of commission government and exercising control over selected areas of student conduct through appointed commissioners, the library board was superseded by a library commissioner under whose direction the management of the library continued much as before.

Other quite different plans of organization are in operation. But usually local government sets the pattern with its mayor, board of aldermen or city commissioners, and its municipal court.

2. Obstacles and winning factors. The success of any self-government experiment depends largely on general school morale, the willingness of pupils to accept guidance, and the patience and good judgment of the guides. Without sincere interest and cooperation on the part of parents, pupils, and staff, the scheme may easily get out of hand; and that danger, plus the constitutional inability of some librarians to play the part of coach instead of that of captain and to stay on the sidelines while the pupil team chalks up blunders as well as victories is probably the reason the plan is not more widely put into operation. Certainly, risks are involved, and often serious handicaps must be overcome—among them the tacit or outspoken opposition of an occasional doubting faculty member. “What!” he apostrophizes the librarian. “Trust a bunch of pupils to pick the right individual to sit in authority at the desk? What about scholarship? Is some local Henry Aldrich to be allowed to spend time serving as library clerk when he ought to be studying algebra? You certainly don’t mean you should stand aside while a pupil conduct officer blunders painfully along with a discipline problem you could handle in three winks!”

Where experimentation with self-government is to be tried out in the library in advance of the adoption of a school-wide plan, the matter must obviously be approached with caution and tact and with the active support of the principal with whose cooperation the idea is presented and thoroughly discussed in faculty meeting. When finally put into operation situations annoying to individual instructors are treated diplomatically. To Henry Aldrich the librarian points out that continued low grades may unfit him in the eyes of the student council to continue in office and adds a private admonition to the effect that, after all, algebra is a subject of considerable importance, as many a boy learned during World War II.

Some measure of pupil self-government is at the present time in successful operation in many school libraries. Without question, the pupils in these schools are getting valuable experience in that democratic living so frequently urged as an outstanding goal in American education.

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NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. *Student Council Handbook*. N.E.A., 1940.

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IV

Materials and Equipment

The Book Collection

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| I. <i>The Library as Materials Center</i> | VII. <i>Literature</i> |
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| 1. <i>Books adding to knowledge and experience</i> | 3. <i>Tools for the librarian</i> |
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| 3. <i>Books of opinion</i> | XII. <i>Adequacy of the Book Collection</i> |
| VI. <i>Recreational Reading</i> | 1. <i>Numerical evaluation</i> |
| | 2. <i>Qualitative evaluation</i> |
| | XIII. <i>Aids in Book Selection</i> |
| | 1. <i>Lists</i> |
| | 2. <i>Other aids</i> |
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I. THE LIBRARY AS MATERIALS CENTER

In earlier years, the library's stock-in-trade could have been comprehended in the one word "books," possibly limited by the qualifying clause, "not used as texts." But a change has occurred. The library is now an accepted center for the administration of many, if not all, "materials of instruction," an inclusive educational term embracing everything from library books to textbooks, and from pamphlets to films and records.

The change has been a gradual one. Periodicals and printed vertical file materials were probably the earliest additions to the book collection. So-called "supplementary readers" sometimes clamored for space on library shelves but were not so welcome. They savored of the wholesale trade and librarians preferred to be retailers. The right book for the right child at the right time presupposed a wide variety of titles from which to select something for the individual rather than shelves full of identical titles to be handed perfunctorily to all members of a class group.

Inexpensive graphic materials were given a much more cordial reception. Soon picture files made chiefly of illustrative materials clipped or purchased at slight expense became school library "musts." Portfolios, maps, and charts were also willingly accepted so long as their dimensions were such as to make possible their accommodation in the vertical file or in cupboards with which the library room could easily be equipped.

But the end was not yet. Quantities of new instructional materials designed to meet the needs of the expanding curriculum—special series and services to implement units of the course of study, slides, films, records—demanded housing and administration. What was to be done with all these?

In some schools the question was answered through the creation of a "materials bureau" or "center" quite outside the library, perhaps affiliated with the free textbook room if there was one. In other cases, librarians and school administrators decided that the library, when properly equipped, financed and staffed, was the logical materials center for the school by virtue of being "the one agency . . . organized to handle efficiently materials which are circulated."¹

In the present chapter and that following, the student may expect to glimpse all the types of materials which make up the school library. For discussion of the principles of book selection and for aids in selection and buying he is directed to the bibliographies accompanying each chapter.

II. BUILDING UP THE LIBRARY—BASIC CONSIDERATIONS

It has been well said that everything that goes into the library must not only be good, but good for something. First of all, the materials placed there must be serviceable in enriching and carrying out the curriculum. But that is not the entire story, since identical courses of study may be offered in differing ways, depending largely on whether textbook, laboratory experiment, or shop work chiefly occupy student time or whether these activities are frequently interlarded with challenges and activities that take pupils far afield in the world of printed and visual materials. If the librarian sits with the curriculum committee, or the committee meets in the library where suggestions for curriculum enrichment are readily available, library resources will undoubtedly come nearer to interlocking with curricular demands than can possibly be the case otherwise.

¹ Gardiner, Jewel, and Baisden, I. B. *Administering Library Service in the Elementary School*. A.L.A., 1941, p.8.

However, the curriculum should not be the sole criterion. Bearing in mind the tremendous influence of accessibility on the reading and exploratory activities of boys and girls, the library wisely and legitimately "extends the concept of book provision far beyond the limits seemingly imposed by the formal curriculum,"² providing many reading materials simply because they deal with situations boys and girls want to read about and matters in which they have an absorbing interest.

Naturally, such extensions beyond curricular demands have a limit, one being financial. To labor this point is superfluous. No matter what the curriculum, the methods of instruction or the type of school, the library collection must be tailored to fit the funds available.³

Closely related to the problem of finance is the availability of certain types of materials through outside library agencies, more especially those which are near neighbors. After a basic collection of reference materials has been permanently installed on the school library shelves, plus a reasonable number of titles more or less constantly in demand for enrichment purposes and background reading, other titles such as current fiction, travel, and biography may be supplied sparingly by the school if easily available in the public library or through a library extension agency. This by no means suggests that pleasure reading is to be totally excluded from school purchase. Far from it. A reasonable number of volumes should be provided chiefly for the joy they give, even when available elsewhere.

The type of school is important. The demands on the library made by the religious or nonsectarian private school, the technical school, the continuation or night school, and the training school in a teachers' college all vary, and the slant of the school is mirrored in its book collection.⁴ No single "standard" list of books can ever be followed exclusively in meeting the needs of any particular institution.

Considerations such as some suggested in Chapter III must likewise be borne in mind, i.e., the needs of gifted and of retarded readers. The type of community is also important, whether rural, industrial, cultured or backward; and the place of the school library in the community—whether it is reserved for school use only or is available to the general public.

² Wight, E. A., and Carnovsky, Leon. "The Library." In Gray, W. S., ed. *Reading in General Education*. American Council on Education, 1940, p.431.

³ For discussion of the book budget, see Chapter XI.

⁴ The special demands of Catholic parochial and diocesan high schools, as well as a number of other types, are summarized in Heaps, W. A. *Book Selection for Secondary School Libraries*. Wilson, 1942, p.303-9.

III. THE BOOK COLLECTION

1. **Importance.** Whatever else may go into the library, books are still its basic stock-in-trade. Were other evidence lacking, reference might be made to the emphasis placed upon the book collection in all standards and criteria for the evaluation of library service.

2. **Principal elements.** There are a number of angles from which the elements of the book collection may be approached, but use is of primary concern. On this basis, and in spite of many overlappings and an occasional indefinite boundary line, the book collection may be roughly divided as follows:

(a) Books for ready reference, used primarily for fact-finding; (b) informational literature—titles useful in adding to the reader's store of knowledge and experience and in setting the stage for study or educational activity; (c) aids to thinking and acting—books on methods of study, practical psychology, and conduct; (d) literary masterpieces—representative volumes essential in the study of English, American, and world literature; (e) recreational reading—primarily fiction, but including books in any category which may be read for pleasure; (f) books useful in work with retarded readers—again volumes in any category, but chosen primarily with an eye to their age and interest appeal; (g) teaching aids useful to instructors in preparing their work and in improving their techniques; (h) library tools—printed catalogs, guides to classifying, cataloging, filing and so on.

IV. BOOKS FOR READY REFERENCE

In Chapter IV the library was pictured as a fact-finding and information center, and, as a general thing, volumes useful in these areas are considered to be the foundation stones of the book collection. There may of course be situations, particularly in the elementary field or in rural areas in which children are underprivileged from the point of view of reading materials, where it may be preferable to give a first taste of the library through recreational reading. Indeed, there are not a few educational leaders as well as children's librarians who are definitely disturbed by the way in which factual literature tends in the school to crowd out the child's legitimate heritage of fancy and imagination. Nevertheless, if a school library is to get beyond reading-room status, it must contain fact-finding and informational materials.

In the fact-finding area are to be found what were designated (Chapter IV) as "R" books—volumes not designed for consecutive reading, but for

ready reference, i.e., dictionaries, encyclopedias, handbooks, almanacs, atlases, and so on.

1. **Mistaken choices.** At the elementary level many mistakes have been made by providing reference volumes authoritative in nature but not within the vocabulary range or understanding of young learners. The same has been true to a more limited extent at the secondary level where scholarly volumes in which the going was heavy have found their way to the reference shelves when presentation in simple, lucid style of the results of scholarship and research were what was needed.

Happily, there is now no excuse for such mistakes at either level: first, because of the availability at slight expense of plenty of authoritative aids in book selection for school libraries; and secondly, because the rapid growth of such libraries and the demands of the modern curriculum have provided powerful incentives to the publishing world to produce a reference literature definitely designed for boys and girls. For elementary and junior high school groups there are excellent juvenile encyclopedias such as the *World Book* and *Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia*, and the *Thorndike-Century dictionaries*,⁵ all with scientifically adjusted vocabularies and effective illustrations. At the same time there exists for use at the secondary school level a growing literature of special reference characterized by reasonably familiar terminology and excellent illustration and arranged for ease in consultation. Aronsen's *Encyclopedia of Furniture*, valuable in connection with home economics and the study of design, and Scholes' *Oxford Companion to Music* are good examples.⁶

Another mistake sometimes made is indulgence in too many physically as well as intellectually heavy reference sets at the expense of more pertinent and more readable volumes which may not classify as ready reference and yet may be more useful. In school it is desirable that the search for facts should be a pleasurable as well as an intellectual experience.

2. **How many and what?** How many and what books is a question which cannot be answered in a way to admit of general application. Each library must solve the problem for itself in the light of its budget, the school curriculum, the mental maturity of pupils, and the needs of instructors. The last is important because it is not to be forgotten that the

⁵ *The Thorndike-Century Junior Dictionary*. Scott, Foresman, rev. ed., 1942.

The Thorndike-Century Senior Dictionary. Scott, Foresman, 1941.

⁶ Aronsen, Joseph. *The Encyclopedia of Furniture*. Crown, 1938.

Scholes, P. A., ed. *The Oxford Companion to Music*. Oxford Univ. Pr., 1938.

instructional staff deserves immediate access to basic fact-finding tools, even though not necessarily to highly specialized professional publications better kept in a central library. It may, however, be helpful to call attention to certain types of "R" books for which demands are heaviest.

Elementary grades.—At the elementary level are general encyclopedias—not many, but perhaps two or three, including one adult set because of its more comprehensive coverage and the desirability of introducing boys and girls, even at an early age, to standard adult tools; dictionaries, both abridged and unabridged so that pupils may become acquainted with their contents and uses; biographical compilations such as the *Junior Book of Authors* and *Who's Who in America*; an up-to-date atlas;⁷ an almanac; a volume on holidays such as Hazeltine's *Anniversaries and Holidays*; the state "blue book" or legislative manual; at least one anthology of verse; a periodical index, and indexes to poetry, songs, quotations, children's plays, fairy tales and curriculum materials.⁸

Junior high school.—The demands of the junior high school suggest duplication of practically all titles listed for the elementary school, with the addition of books at a slightly higher level, including more volumes of general information such as Kane's *First Facts* and others according to demand, but always with an eye on informational material available in readable form through periodicals and pamphlets.

Senior high school.—In the senior high school, it is again a matter of pyramiding, for most of the titles already mentioned still remain. In the case of encyclopedias and dictionaries, however, emphasis is reversed, i.e., those of adult stature come first. The authoritative *Basic Book Collection for High Schools* says:

It is recommended that school libraries purchase one advanced encyclopedia, either the *Americana* or the *Britannica*; one more elementary encyclopedia, either *Compton's* or the *World Book*, and a one-volume work, such as *Columbia* or *Lincoln*.⁹

⁷ In some schools where excellent maps are available to pupils through their textbooks and through wall maps hung in classrooms, a globe may be a more desirable purchase for the library.

⁸ Rue, Eloise. *Subject Index to Books for Primary Grades*. A.L.A., 1943. (Also *First Supplement*, 1946.)

———. *Subject Index to Books for Intermediate Grades*. A.L.A., 1940. (Also *First Supplement*, 1943.)

⁹ American Library Association, National Education Association and National Council of Teachers of English Joint Committee; Jessie Boyd, Chairman. *A Basic Book Collection for High Schools*. A.L.A., 1942, p.12.

Foreign language dictionaries also enter the picture according to the language offered by the school. More reference books are provided in the fields of biography, literature, history, science, art, social studies, and all other areas of learning—according to demand and the funds available. Special mention should be made of the growing importance of vocational indexes, and of the usefulness of what Shores in his *Basic Reference Books*¹⁰ has defined as “Representations,” i.e., books of outstanding value pictorially such as the *Pageant of America*.

All along, it must be emphasized that the librarian buys cautiously, first making sure that these “R” books which cost so much will of a certainty meet real needs and not duplicate material available in less expensive, and perhaps more readable, form in her general book collection; and secondly, making equally sure through the use of standard evaluative tools such as the *Subscription Books Bulletin*;¹¹ that she is not simply falling a prey to expert advertising and high pressure salesmanship.

V. INFORMATIONAL BOOKS

Under informational books may be lumped together books primarily useful in adding to the reader's general store of knowledge and experience and in enriching the curriculum and setting the stage for study or educational activity.

1. **Books adding to knowledge and experience.** In addition to reference books augmenting the reader's knowledge with isolated facts and textbooks definitely organizing knowledge to implement courses of study, there are books highly useful in supplementing textbook learning that are written for consecutive reading without reference to any particular course of study. Such books are biographies; accounts of processes; books about geographical areas; books of opinion, historical epochs and scientific developments; and titles dealing with hobbies, the arts, and vocations. A glance at the *Standard Catalog for High School Libraries* reveals at once how broad is the scope of the informational books considered suitable for school library shelves, covering almost anything from moles to magic, from Tarawa to tennis, from pottery to the United States postal system.

Many have values of which the textbook is conspicuously devoid. While

¹⁰ Shores, Louis. *Basic Reference Books*. 2d. ed. A.L.A., 1939.

¹¹ The *Subscription Books Bulletin* is an inexpensive quarterly sponsored by the American Library Association and devoted to the evaluation of current reference titles. It is a library “consumer's guide” which should be known and used in every school.

reading Kathrene Pinkerton's *Wilderness Wife*, a girl lives vicariously with the author, experiencing the struggles and triumphs of homemaking in the Canadian bush; a boy following Vincent Sheean's *Personal History* participates in the young journalist's search for a sane and comprehensive view of world affairs.

2. **Books for curriculum enrichment.** Although the books just discussed are without doubt "materials of curriculum enrichment," the term needs to be considered from a somewhat narrower point of view.

There was a time when it was deemed enough to make available in the school, especially at the elementary level, certain sets of so-called "supplementary texts" or "readers," tailored to follow the main text. Such volumes, still to be found in every school, are definitely useful. They provide source materials, enlarge upon textbook suggestions, and in the case of "readers" often parallel the text with material carefully prepared from the viewpoint of vocabulary, sentence structure, age, and appeal. When such books are used exclusively, the play of author personality on the child and the possibility of an individually adjusted and guided reading program is lost. From the point of view of use and handling, such volumes have been rather generally regarded as more nearly texts than library books, funds for their purchase being separately budgeted and wholesale methods used for their recording and issuing. Whatever the method of administration, it cannot be too often repeated that these books should be generously supplemented by other types of reading material.

For example, consider the needs of a social studies class about to begin the study of race relations. Texts and carefully prepared supplementary readings provide excellent data on racial characteristics and backgrounds, indicate the geographical areas in which certain groups have settled, and discuss their records as workers and citizens. But race relations is a human problem. Facts and figures are not enough. If the unit is to acquire bite and reality, it must also be approached from the angle of the individual and biography and fiction must be used.

It becomes apparent that the function of many, many library books is to enrich the curriculum by setting the stage and creating the atmosphere in which learning takes place most effectively.

3. **Books of opinion.** Because it serves the immature reader the school library has always recognized an obligation of censorship. However, in the field of political, economic, and social opinion, censorship need not be so rigorously applied as practically to eliminate writing tinged by any obvious

"ism." Boys and girls preparing for life in a democratic community must experience in school the impact of opposing opinion and learn to find their way through conflicting propaganda.¹² In the main, factual literature presenting both sides of moot questions, or at least presenting issues dispassionately, is still favored. And yet, honest conviction, freely and forcibly expressed for a purpose, can not be wholly shut out unless young readers are to be reared in a hothouse. The advocate is a valuable person provided he has regard for the facts and is high-minded in their use. Boys and girls profit from getting acquainted with him. Aside from his message, they learn to sense the values in standing up for what is believed. Certainly then, insofar as classes are set to examine and evaluate books of opinion, and even out-and-out propaganda, under the guidance of a skilled instructor, the obligation of the library to supply such literature has to be considered frankly.

The following statement of policy covering controversial literature was developed some years since by a group of experienced school librarians. It may still be helpful.¹³

Reading materials representing extreme positions on moot questions of social and economic life should be made accessible to pupils only when the school provides adequate guidance through the classroom in their evaluation by pupils. Lacking such guidance it is better to provide controversial materials which are approached from a scientific or tolerant point of view; i.e., the pro and con discussions to be found in texts, in high class journals of criticism (*Nation*, *New Republic*), in pamphlet publications sponsored by educational or research organizations.

This statement should not be construed to eliminate the reasoned presentation of social or economic positions or systems by authors who are recognized leaders (i.e., Marx, Thomas, Browder, Henry George, and others).

VI. RECREATIONAL READING

So much has been said elsewhere about the importance of reading for fun that the presence in the library of wholesome fiction, travel, and gay adventure goes without further saying. In the small school with limited funds it is desirable wherever possible to make some cooperative arrange-

¹² Miller, C. R. "Propaganda Analysis." *N.E.A. Journal*. 29:201-2, October 1940. (Also published as N.E.A. "Personal Growth Leaflet" no. 114.)

Overstreet, H. A. and Caulfield, C. H. "Should Controversial Subjects be Discussed in Schools?" *School Life* 25:S0-2, December 1939.

¹³ Columbia University School of Library Service Summer Session Class in Book Problems. (Library Service 334.)

ment with neighboring schools or with the public library for an occasional brightening of the recreational collection through exchange or loan. In the large school, generous provision for recreational reading out of the school's own funds should be possible. If not, and if public library resources are easily available, enough recreational books may be supplied by the school to stimulate appetite, full satisfaction being left to the outside institution with its wider resources.

VII. LITERATURE

Although in the school far more emphasis than formerly is placed on extensive reading, on reading for information, and on the development of the reading habit, an older objective still looms large in the reading program: first-hand acquaintance with a reasonable number of the masterpieces of literature and the development of taste and standards of literary value that grow out of such acquaintance.

1. **In the elementary school.** It was in line with this objective that the expansion of the book collection in the elementary school beyond the limits of the "reader" was stressed a few pages back. The classics of childhood literature should be accorded as ample space on library shelves there as that given more adult masterpieces in the secondary school. The elementary collection should be rich in verse and in works of imagination and phantasy. Of course such classics must be chosen within the child's range of interest¹⁴ and with the knowledge that bright, cheerful illustrations by artists whose taste, imagination and skill are beyond question increase their appeal.

2. **In the secondary school.** How the collection should be developed in the secondary school depends a good deal on how literature is taught; whether the approach is from the point of view of form (ballads, essays, the novel); of chronology or literary history; of centers of interest or "themes"; of world literature—books every educated individual should know. In all cases, representative classics should be available; not the entire works of any one author with the possible exception of Shakespeare, but outstanding titles appearing in unabridged form and not merely as excerpts in school anthologies. In case of poetry and drama, small volumes of a single author should not be neglected in favor of too many bulky general anthologies that have little eye appeal, and often frighten students

¹⁴ For children's reading interests and other factors see Chapter II, and suggested readings at the end of that chapter.

by their very size. Literary biographies, preferably short and providing background rather than critical comment, must be in evidence as well as a small, basic collection of excellent literary histories, not too scholarly or critical in approach but emphasizing instead literary and social movements. Probably also needed are a few authoritative volumes dealing with and illustrating literary form—the ballad, the short story, the drama and so on.

In building the collection it will be helpful to remember that in most schools the aim of literary study is appreciation and acquaintance rather than critical analysis. The school wishes to foster taste and a love of the best.

3. **Illustrated editions.** Buying attractive editions at all times and occasionally indulging in beautifully illustrated and typographically outstanding editions of the classics is especially important. If the library budget cannot be stretched to cover occasional extravagances of this sort, opportunity may come through class gifts or entertainment funds. To encourage gifts, it will be worth while to publicize through the school paper or other media a “want” list, thus forestalling unwise selection on the part of donors. Where a class gift is in prospect, the choice of editions may be made a project involving the use of many bibliographical aids and visits of inspection to bookstores and other libraries.

VIII. BOOKS FOR RETARDED READERS

The function of the library with regard to retarded readers was indicated earlier (Chapter III) reference there being made to lists useful in selecting books for varied forms of retardation and to criteria useful in selection. It is only necessary to add that, because such readers must be appealed to through interest, format, and simple style rather than on grounds of normally developing taste and reading ability, many books may find their way into the library that are more or less elementary from the standpoint of the average pupil and occasionally not wholly up to desirable literary standards for the reason that such books are sometimes the only ones at the learner's age level in the field where his interest lies or his emotional response can be predicated.

It should be realized, however, that there is available a steadily increasing body of excellent material consciously adjusted in vocabulary and sentence structure to the needs of learners at various levels, not written down, but simple in style. And there are the books that depend largely on pictures for their appeal. There is also a wealth of thin, attractive

booklets, perhaps better classified as pamphlets, often written by authorities and well-known authors, that deal with practically every subject in which a boy or a girl may be interested, from how to make the living room at home look more attractive to how to identify animal tracks. There are also plenty of worth-while stories having the same emotional appeal as the cheap series boys and girls pass around because they are inexpensive and easily available. The librarian's problem of selection in this field is the same as that for her other readers. She must know her books personally and supplement her own experience by the use of annotated lists.

IX. AIDS TO THINKING AND ACTING

The public school curriculum of today definitely emphasizes guidance in thinking processes and in conduct. The *how* of thinking is considered as well as the *what*; conduct is frankly approached through units on social living, through activities, and through the personal work of the guidance director.

In no curricular field is there more need of implementation through the library. While methods of study, including how to use the library and the important aspects of practical psychology, may be covered in group work based on a common text or syllabus, there is much even here which demands individual treatment. In the field of conduct and social relationships the toughest problems are highly individual and often more successfully approached indirectly through the pages of a book than directly by word of mouth or group study.

In the library, then, there are needed a few good titles on how to study and how to read; volumes that deal with the psychology of learning and of everyday life (Grabbe and Murphy, *We Call It Human Nature*; McLean, *Knowing Yourself and Others*); well-recommended titles dealing sanely with sex (see titles listed in the *Standard Catalog for High School Libraries*) and religion, the latter nonsectarian in approach (Browne, Lewis, *This Believing World* and Fitch, M. F., *One God*); books on the development of personality and kindred problems; and a number of books of etiquette such as Allen and Brigg's *Behave Yourself*.

It is well to remember that titles classified in the library as 100's do not represent the sum-total of books useful in directing thinking and conduct. Biography has a subtle way of inspiring right conduct, as do hero tales and other works of fiction. Many books of this sort should be acquired at least partly because of what they may accomplish in the direction of stim-

ulating high ideals of thought and conduct. In the high school, essays and plays destined for the English reading list may well include some chosen with an eye to their appeal, either humorous or serious, to adolescent boys and girls interested in the amenities of social life and in the emotions of love and friendship. Volumes of verse or drama arranged around these pivotal topics as well as the related topics of patriotism and love of home may be added for similar reasons.

If the librarian is guided in her book buying by standard lists as well as by extensive and critical reading, many of these volumes will find their way to the shelves without conscious effort since titles achieving admission to standard lists because of general excellence will probably embody the wanted virtues.

X. TEACHING AIDS AND LIBRARIAN TOOLS

1. *Pedagogical literature.* Somewhere there should be available to instructors a well-chosen collection of up-to-date professional literature. To place such a collection in every school is beyond the possibility of most budgets. A better arrangement is to provide in each school library a few basic titles chiefly reference in character, leaving to the teachers' room of the public library or a central professional library maintained by the board of education the job of supplying current educational titles. Under such a plan the school library may operate as a deposit station making the resources of the larger collection readily available as needed.

For the benefit of schools operating where no central collection exists, it is worth noting that pedagogical titles may often be borrowed through state or county library agencies and that considerable educational literature of value may be secured gratis from governmental agencies, federal and state. Probably most of it will come in pamphlet form—the U.S. Office of Education *Bulletins*, for example. Methods of obtaining these publications may be devious. In the case of federal titles a request to be placed on the mailing list of the Office of Education may bring them gratis; or they may be purchased for comparatively small sums from the Superintendent of Documents. State publications of interest to teachers will usually be brought to the librarian's attention by the state library agency if there is an active one. Otherwise a request to be put on the mailing list of the state department of education, agriculture, etc., may bring results.

Current announcements of the more useful of these inexpensive educational publications are made through *The Booklist*, the *Wilson Vertical*

File Service Catalog, and the U.S. Office of Education's own magazine, *School Life*.

A few titles classifying with education should be acquired for the school library primarily because they deal with phases of the subject of importance to boys and girls. Among them are volumes on educational history, the value of an education, descriptions of college and university life; and for the reference shelf, directories to colleges, trade schools, correspondence courses, and so on.

2. **Teachers' circulating library.** Although not necessarily in the category of teaching aids, a special faculty lending collection of professional titles, of nonprofessional titles, or of both, operated through the school library, is becoming a growing custom.

When the school library is organized as part of a public library system, or is closely related to such a system, this special teachers' collection may exist as a loan, shelved in the teachers' alcove or conference room and managed as a deposit station under the direction of the school librarian. In other situations, members of the faculty sometimes contribute a small annual fee for the purchase of their own circulating library which may include periodicals as well as books and may be housed in a special alcove or attractively furnished teachers' room under the general supervision of the school librarian. Such arrangements make for cordial contacts and often draw into the school library faculty members who might not otherwise come.

3. **Tools for the librarian.** Like the classroom teacher, the librarian needs professional books: volumes dealing with routines and processes, library instruction aids, suggestions for activities, guides to book purchasing and the acquisition of pamphlet materials, volumes on administration, and professional periodicals such as *The Booklist*, the *Wilson Library Bulletin*, and the *Subscription Books Bulletin*.

As in the case of teaching aids, it may be possible to arrange for a central collection from which all local school librarians may borrow; but even then there should be in each school a basic collection of librarian tools needed in daily work. Failure to have such tools readily accessible when needed is poor economy.

XI. TEXTS AND SEMITEXTS

If the school provides free textbooks, the conception of the library as a materials center suggests that it be made responsible for texts and sup-

plementary reading titles¹⁵ even though the books are housed outside the library proper.

A number of advantages in administering all reading materials in the school as a unit are apparent. Use by teachers of varied types of printed matter is greatly facilitated when the latter are together in one place, and the librarian becomes a wiser judge of what is needed in the library when she is familiar with all printed resources of the school. Better book selection results because instructors on their side get a clearer view of library resources and so more generally take them into account in their requests for supplementary literature. Economies result because the librarian, being an expert in the care and management of book collections, initiates and maintains excellent organization and efficient circulation routines. One school librarian demonstrated statistically that a supplementary volume could be made to serve eight times as many readers during a semester when circulated under library management as when handled by an untrained, unsupervised bookroom clerk; and statistics kept in a large city school system where textbooks and library collections are jointly administered by the librarian in the central school library have likewise proved the economy of this arrangement.

On the other hand, it is fair to point out that the library-textbook combination is not all clear sailing. There is the matter of storage, for example. At present, not many school libraries are equipped for the care of a large number of texts, and a storage room far removed from the library is not easily supervised, nor do the advantages of close juxtaposition of materials exist.

The amount of purely mechanical and clerical work involved in textbook administration is great. The word "storage" was used in the last paragraph advisedly, for compared with the library, the textbook room is a wholesale instead of a retail establishment. Books go out by fifties and hundreds and return in similar job lots to be stored until called into service again. To employ expensive professional time on the nonprofessional tasks involved in the care and circulation of textbooks is far from being a saving. Yet this situation often exists, and since many librarians have

¹⁵ A textbook may be defined as a manual prescribed by the course of study and used by pupils in the day-by-day pursuit of school tasks.

As a device to prevent cluttering library shelves with duplicates, purely arbitrary lines have sometimes been drawn between library books proper and supplementary reading titles, i.e., up to six copies, the latter are treated as library books while heavier duplication classifies the title with textbooks.

observed or experienced the consequent encroachments on professional time, they can scarcely be blamed for wanting to avoid textbook work. However, when adequate assistance is provided, attitudes rather generally change. In this connection it may be added that the employment of volunteer pupil assistants is not adequate in any but a very small school. It has been found that the employment of a clerical helper who divides his time between library and textbook duties may in certain circumstances be a happy arrangement.

Fear that, under joint administration of textbooks with the library, the library budget may not be kept inviolate has been expressed in some quarters. Even under separate administration, however, the practice of diverting library funds for the purchase of textbook materials is not unknown, as witness specific prohibition of such practices emanating from accrediting agencies. Whether the danger would be enhanced under joint administration is a question. An opposite possibility appears to be more likely; namely, that centering of administration in one office may bring about better balance in budgetary allowances and so prevent, rather than encourage, poaching.

On the whole, the advantages of administering library books and texts as correlative units of a single collection appear to outweigh the disadvantages—always provided suitable physical and financial arrangements are made and adequate clerical assistance is available.

XII. ADEQUACY OF THE BOOK COLLECTION

1. **Numerical evaluation.** To date, there is no convenient rule of thumb by which to measure the adequacy of the library book collection, and there probably never will be. As pointed out earlier, standards have tended to employ quantitative measurements. Those recently promulgated by the American Library Association Post-War Planning Committees¹⁶ state that "The school library for approximately 200 pupils should contain not less than 1000 to 1700 titles appropriately selected for the specific group of children"; and that "Provision should be made for the annual addition of at least 100 new titles or replacements." It is added that "These figures would be valid just as definitely in an elementary school as in a high school," and that "In a twelve-grade school, housing one library collection

¹⁶ American Library Association Committees on Post-War Planning. *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow*. A.L.A., 1945, p.20-21.

for the entire school membership, a larger book collection would be needed to provide for the range of ages and abilities."

That most school libraries have a long way to go before reaching such standards of adequacy as those here proposed is evidenced by all reliable studies. Brown reports¹⁷ that small elementary schools (under five hundred enrollment) have an average of 1309 books (not 1309 titles), the smallest collection numbering only 165. In the secondary field, repeated studies made by state and regional accrediting agencies likewise reveal regrettable inadequacies, although the long view shows continuing improvement.

The weaknesses inherent in numerical evaluations are obvious, even when qualified by clauses suggesting that the books must be "appropriately selected for the specific group of children," or, as elsewhere stated, must be "suitable." Such clauses in themselves cause difficulties. Granted that the qualitative evaluation thus suggested is desirable, how is suitability to be determined? What measuring sticks are to be employed?

2. **Qualitative evaluation.** To date, the criteria for adequacy of the book collection employed by the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards¹⁸ probably provide the best measuring sticks. In the instructions accompanying these criteria it is made clear that the objectives of the school, the nature of the pupil population, and the community served are always to be kept in mind, as well as school size, type, and location. Further considerations concern the extent to which pupils have access to good books and periodicals in their homes and the degree to which, as indicated by the combined judgment of teachers, pupils, library staff, and evaluating committee, library materials supply "needs for reference, research, and cultural and inspirational reading."

In direct analysis of the book collection, four criteria are employed:¹⁹

- (1) Number of titles—meaning the number of *different* titles, supplemented by figures indicating the number of duplicate copies available.
- (2) Balanced distribution—as indicated by the number of titles classifying under the more important divisions of the Dewey Decimal Classification.

¹⁷ Brown, H. W. *Study of Methods and Practices in Supplying Library Service to Public Elementary Schools in the United States*. Univ. of Pennsylvania, 1941, p.86 ff. (Dissertation, privately published.)

¹⁸ Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards. *Evaluative Criteria; F, Library Service*. 1940 ed. The Study, 1939. (Also published as a separate.)

¹⁹ Eells, W. C. "Measurement of the Adequacy of a Secondary School Library; a Report on One Phase of the Cooperative Study." *A.L.A. Bulletin* 32:157-63, March 1938.

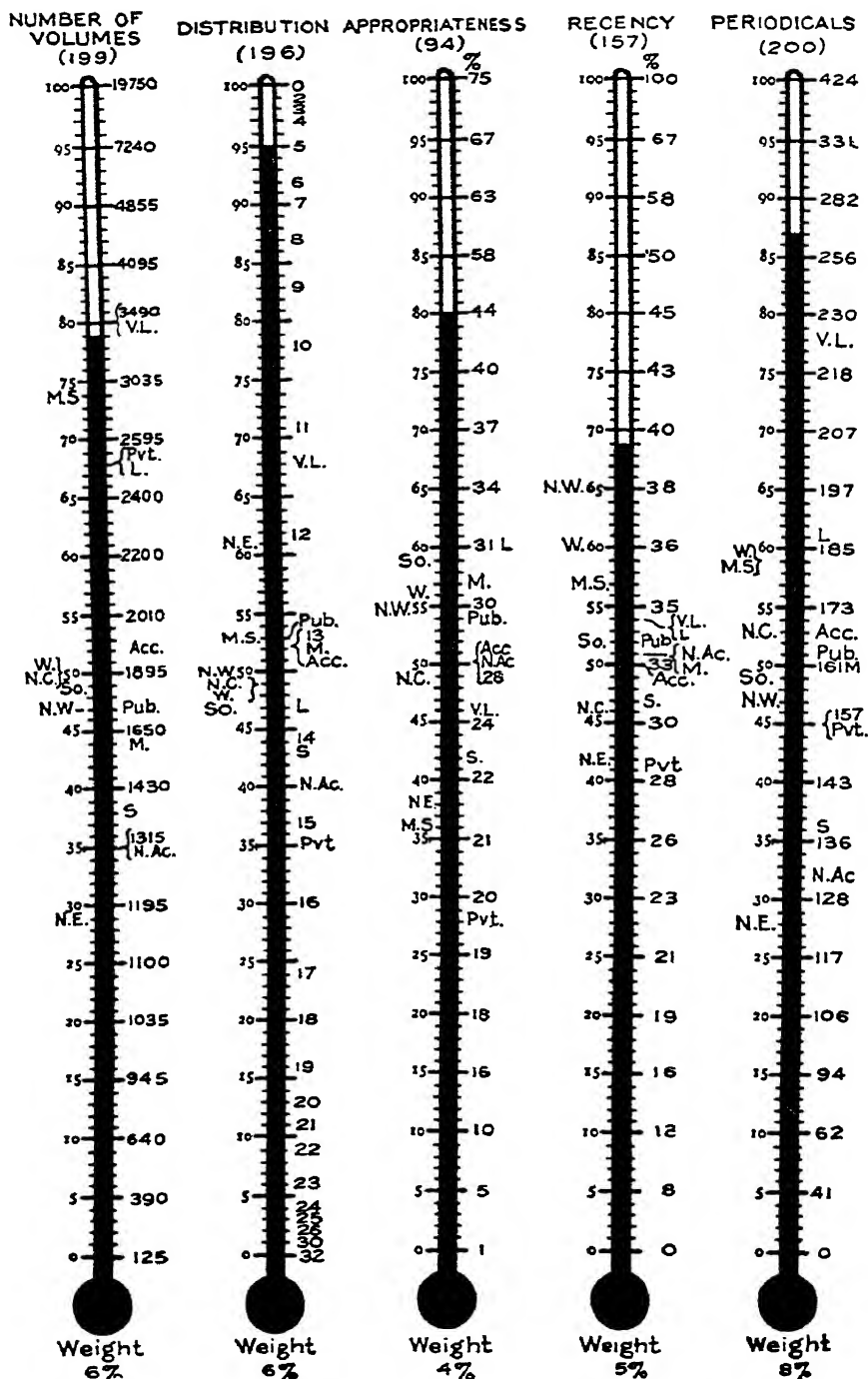


FIG. 1. SCALES FOR MEASUREMENT OF FIVE FACTORS OF THE ADEQUACY OF A SECONDARY SCHOOL LIBRARY²⁰

²⁰ Ecels, op. cit., p.162.

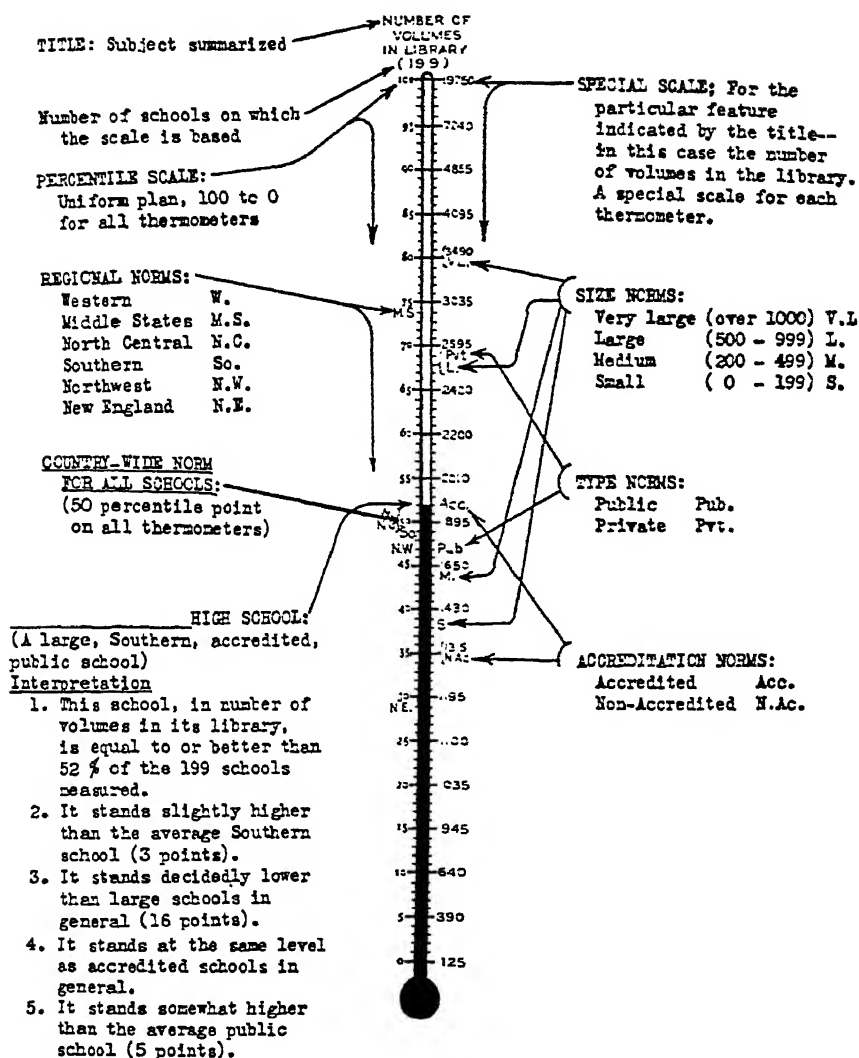
SAMPLE THERMOMETER SCALE ²¹

FIG. 2. EXPLANATION OF THERMOMETER SCALE DEVICE FOR SUMMARIZING DATA AND REPORTING STANDING OF A PARTICULAR SCHOOL

(3) Appropriateness of holdings—as ascertained by checking titles in the library with those appearing in the *Standard Catalog for High School Libraries*, a compilation representing the consensus of opinion of librarians and teachers all over the United States as to what should go into a secondary school collection. (4) Recency of publication—ascertained on a

²¹ Eells, *op. cit.*, p.159.

sampling basis by counting library holdings in the natural and social sciences copyrighted within the last ten years.

The results of this analysis portrayed graphically on thermometer scales indicate (Figure 1) the standing of the library collection on the basis of the four basic criteria, and (Figure 2) its educational temperature in relation to various norms—the norm for the United States at large, for the region, for schools of similar size, and so on.

Such analysis takes time, and is far from being a perfect measure; but it has been employed with eminent success in many situations where not even the librarian was fully aware of the shortcomings of the book collection.

A source outside the Cooperative Study proposes another method for ascertaining balanced distribution, i.e., comparing the percentage of the library collection classified in each subject field with the percentages existing in the *Standard Catalog for High School Libraries*,²² or other recommended percentages such as those proposed in the *Teacher-Librarian's Handbook*.²³

XIII. AIDS IN BOOK SELECTION

Utilization of standard lists such as those appearing in the bibliography following this chapter having been emphasized; a few considerations to be borne in mind when dealing with such lists and other standard aids to book selection may be helpful.

1. Lists.

Sponsorship.—No matter what the list, sponsorship and the qualifications of the bibliographer are of extreme importance.²⁴ Even when a list

²² As reported in the 4th edition of the *Standard Catalog*, 1942, these percentages are as follows:

	Per Cent		Per Cent
General works (class 00)	1.6	Useful arts (class 600)	18.
Philosophy (class 100)	.7	Fine arts (class 700)	8.7
Religion (class 200)	.4	Literature (class 800)	11.
Social sciences (class 300)	11.	Travel (class 910-919)	6.
Philology (class 400)	1.	History (class 900-909; 930-991)	8.
Science (class 500)	8.	Biography (class 92-920)	8.6
		Fiction and story collections	17.

NOTE: the very high percentage in the 600 class reflects a wartime build-up for trade schools.

²³ Douglas, M. P. *Teacher-Librarian's Handbook*. A.L.A., 1941, p.67.

²⁴ For extended discussion of this point see Heaps, W. A. *Book Selection for Secondary School Libraries*. Wilson, 1942, p.109-10.

bears the stamp of a state department of education or of some other authoritative agency. its usefulness still depends upon whether the actual compilers are experts in young people's or children's literature in addition to being educational authorities or subject matter specialists.

Textbook bibliographies.—In textbook bibliographies, distinction must always be made between titles cited by the author as authorities for his statements, titles valuable to the instructor, and those useful to pupils. The best textbook bibliographies make these distinctions clear for many authors use school library facilities and services fully in compiling their book lists. Where such services have not been used, or where there is no segregation of titles, employment of the textbook bibliography as a buying guide is unsatisfactory unless each title is examined or investigated in order to ascertain its appeal. Without such examination, library shelves may become overloaded with authoritative literature beyond the grasp of young learners.

Types.—Most of the lists so far referred to are general in character. Equally authoritative subject bibliographies and lists applicable to special schools may be located through Zaidee Brown's frequently revised pamphlet, *Short Cuts to Information*.²⁵ Many bibliographies are also listed under subject in the *Standard Catalog for High School Libraries* and the *Children's Catalog*. They are usually inexpensive and are valuable in enlarging the library's holdings in special fields and in working with teachers on course syllabi. Among those to be secured are regional and local lists,²⁶ for no general bibliography fills the need here.

Even the most comprehensive lists are inexpensive when considered in the light of their intrinsic value and varied uses. Those from the press of the H. W. Wilson Company (the *Standard Catalog for High School Libraries* and the *Children's Catalog*) are sold on a service basis, prices being adjusted on a sliding scale related to the size of the library.

2. *Other aids.* In addition to recommended lists many other aids in book selection should be known and used: trade catalogs, publishers' announcements and catalogs, book reviews in periodicals. Widely used book

²⁵ Brown, Zaidee, *Short Cuts to Information*. Reprinted from *The Library Key* and frequently revised.

²⁶ Examples: Braun, G. E., and James, M. H. *Connecticut Biography*. Connecticut State Department of Education, 1944. (*Curriculum Laboratory Bulletin* 7.)

Inland Empire Council of Teachers of English. *Northwest Books*. Binfords and Mort, Portland, Oregon, 1942.

Wurzburg, D. A. *East, West, North and South in Children's Books*. Faxon, 1939.

reviewing periodicals in the field of children's literature are the *Horn Book Magazine* and a monthly section in the *Saturday Review of Literature*; books for all grades are included in the *New York Herald Tribune Weekly Book Review*, and the *New York Times Book Review*. The American Library Association's *The Booklist*, publishes semimonthly a selection of current offerings suitable for library purposes, chosen by experts and carefully annotated. The sections on books for children and for young people are particularly useful to school librarians, as are the frequent lists of pamphlet materials. Another invaluable aid previously mentioned in connection with the evaluation of reference volumes is the American Library Association's *Subscription Books Bulletin*.

All these publications deal with titles too recent to have found their way into standard lists and so are chiefly useful in keeping library staff and instructors abreast of current publications and ready to make recommendations when up-to-the-minute materials are needed. However, in the school library recency is not as pressing a consideration as elsewhere. Time for considered judgment is wisely taken before buying, especially in the fields of children's literature and current adult fiction. What the school needs here is the best—not necessarily the latest.

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HENNE, FRANCES. "The Reference Function in the School Library." In Butler, Pierce, ed. *The Reference Function of the Library*. Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1943, p.74-77.

The materials necessary for reference work briefly covered. The need for further study of the actual use of reference titles by pupils in school and public libraries is noted.

KIRK, MARGUERITE. "Adequacy of the Book Supply in School Libraries; An Annotated Bibliography." *Library Quarterly* 13:52-60, January 1943.

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STALLMANN, ESTHER. "Books for the School Library." *Library Journal* 61:638-39, September 1936. (Reprinted from *Peabody Journal of Education* 13:132-36, November 1935.)

Guiding principles in selection tersely stated in outline form.

UHL, W. L. "The Materials of Reading." In National Society for the Study of Education. *Thirty-sixth Yearbook*. Pt. I: *The Teaching of Reading*. Public School Pub. Co., 1937, p.207-53.

Discussion of types and content of reading materials—chiefly of the text or semitext variety up to the middle grades—for all levels from primary to senior high. Observations on typography, vocabulary, and illustration of textbooks will be useful to librarians, as will the bibliography and references to further discussion.

BOOK LISTS

(Consult index for additional lists useful for special purposes)

Secondary School

(Basic lists generally include titles for both the senior and the junior high, with symbols or annotations to indicate the level at which most useful. In selecting books for the junior high, elementary school lists may also be used.)

AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION, NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, and NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH JOINT COMMITTEE; Jessie Boyd, chairman. *A Basic Book Collection for High Schools*. A.L.A., 1942. "Lists, classifies, and evaluates 1500 titles . . . suggested by librarians, teachers, and specialists." Not limited to curricular materials; but subject headings in the fiction section and the index make it a great help to teachers. Replaces 1000 Books for the Senior High School Library.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH. Books for You. The Council, 1945. (211 W. 68th Street, Chicago, Illinois.)

Arranged by books and types.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION and AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION JOINT COMMITTEE: Jean C. Roos, chairman. By Way of Introduction. Rev. ed. A.L.A., 1947.

Titles unusually well selected and annotated with the interests of youthful readers in mind. Arranged under broad topics.

SHIELDS, AGNES, and HILL, MARCIA. Challenge. Wilson, 1946. "Reading for Background" series no.16.

"Titles chosen with a view to readability for young people" who have physical handicaps.

Standard Catalog for High School Libraries. 4th ed. Wilson, 1942.

A dictionary catalog and classified list of some 4000 well-annotated titles chosen by librarians, teachers and subject matter experts. Symbols indicate first and second choices, and whether the title is chiefly useful at the junior or senior level. Service price includes semiannual supplements. A Catholic edition is available.

"Books for Young People," a regular feature in *The Booklist* (A.L.A.) is a valuable guide to current publications.

Special lists for private schools are available from the Pro Parvulis Book Club (Catholic), Empire State Building, New York City; and from the Secondary Education Board (private schools), Milton 86, Massachusetts.

Excellent lists are also available from the offices of school library supervisors in state departments of education, and from the Library Service Division of the U.S. Office of Education. The latter are usually brief lists on timely subjects. Watch for announcements in *School Life*.

Two volumes useful in building up the reference collection are:

HIRSHBERG, H. S. Subject Guide to Reference Books. A.L.A., 1942.

SHORES, LOUIS. Basic Reference Books. 2d ed. A.L.A., 1939.

Elementary School

AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION and NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION JOINT COMMITTEE: Gretchen Westervelt, chairman. A Basic Book Collection for Elementary Grades. A.L.A., 1943.

Carefully annotated titles (1400) arranged by subject with grade level indicated for each title. Full buying information given as well as Dewey class number and subject headings. Replaces the Graded List of Books for Children.

ASSOCIATION FOR CHILDHOOD EDUCATION. Bibliography of Books for Children. Rev. ed. The Association, 1945. (General Service Bulletin)

Children's Catalog. 6th ed., rev. Wilson, 1941. (7th ed. announced.)

A dictionary catalog and a list by grades of more than 4000 titles. Some 900 are analyzed, and those for first purchase are indicated. Sold on service basis with no extra charge for annual supplements. Useful in both the elementary school and the junior high school.

U. S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION. 500 Books for Children: Compiled by Nora E. Beust. The Office, 1939 (Bulletin no.11) (See also supplement in *School Life*, October 1945, available as reprint.)

An inexpensive list, particularly useful to the elementary library building a basic collection on limited funds.

WASHBURNE, CARLETON, and others. The Right Book for the Right Child; A Graded Buying List. 3d ed., rev. John Day, 1942.

A list of 1500 titles scientifically graded to meet the needs of children from two to fifteen.

Other Materials of Learning

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I. INTRODUCTION

So far, discussion of the school library as the materials center of the school has been largely limited to combined administration of textbooks and library books. Remaining to be considered are the nonbook materials which today knock with increasing insistency at educational and library doors: serial publications—chiefly magazines; pamphlets and clippings—often lumped together as vertical file materials; and audio-visual aids—all sorts from mounted pictures to radio recordings and museum objects. First to be considered are serial publications, discussion being limited to choice and use. For handling see Chapter XII.

II. SERIAL PUBLICATIONS

A serial is a publication that “appears in successive parts or numbers.” Included in the definition are: (a) periodicals, which come regularly at comparatively short intervals (magazines and newspapers); and (b) continuations, a comprehensive term embracing some publications which come regularly but at long intervals (annuals, semiannuals, biennial reports) and others (bulletins, government documents, and some pamphlet series)

whose chief characteristic is that they keep coming but at intervals which are uncertain. The well-rounded school library receives many serials.

1. Magazines.

Why buy them?—First of all, because they supplement the book collection in its every phase, providing additional printed fare in all areas of the curriculum. Frequently, current information is available through no other channel. Boys and girls who are not always drawn to factual literature in book form often have their interest piqued by subject matter just off the press and vitalized by association with daily events. *Flying*, *Newsweek*, and the *National Geographic* have their devoted followers who rise like magic on the librarian's trail when she crosses the room to open the morning's mail.

There are many other reasons for the liberal provision of periodical literature. It is needed as an antidote for the insinuating and demoralizing influence of the corner newsstand. A related reason grows out of paucity in most homes of periodicals appropriate to youth. Repeated investigations show that to few come regularly the finer types of periodical literature unless it be in the picture field—the *National Geographic*, for example. Countless homes, including the better ones, have no magazines at all other than flashy pictorials, movie sheets, and a few innocuous women's magazines. For younger children no provision is made other than the comics appearing in the daily paper or purchased at the drug store; and for young people the living room table fails completely to offer a magazine diet permeated with vitamins.

In no area of reading does the factor of "accessibility" count for more than in the field of periodical literature. Youth reads what is handy. If *Boy's Life* is found lying on the table, it is eagerly devoured, definitely crowding the unrealistic pulp which innate good sense tells the boy is shoddy, if not actually dirty. The important thing is to have the desirable magazine stare the youngster in the face where he is—at home, and in the school on an open display rack.

From the classroom come insistent demands not only for a well-filled display rack but for the duplication of many titles for classroom use. Curricular utilization of periodical literature takes three principal forms: the enrichment of subject matter fields; use in English courses to acquaint pupils with current literature and to implement magazine study; and use in developmental or remedial reading activities where experience shows that frequently there can be found in periodicals the precise bit of printed

matter that strikes a responsive chord in a child's field of interest and so starts him on the way toward reading mastery.

When the use of magazines for classroom purposes in English or in a subject matter field requires heavy duplication,¹ the situation is, in actual practice, often met outside the library proper either by administering the duplicates as laboratory materials or by requiring their purchase by individual pupils or classroom groups in lieu of texts. On the other hand, when variety of magazine materials is more important than heavy duplication, administration through the library has been the rule since it is not only the most practicable, but the most economical method. In the library, for example, the overlapping demands of several departments can be cared for through one subscription as when the *Consumer's Guide* is made available to classes in science, home economics, and social science.

Factors influencing the size of the magazine collection.—Outside of the curriculum, a number of considerations applicable to the provision of books in the school library apply equally well in the case of magazines. There are, for example, budgetary limitations. What proportion of the budget for printed materials should be expended for magazines has been variously estimated² and will inevitably depend a good deal on local conditions, but appropriations for the purchase of magazines are receiving increasing emphasis.

The availability of desirable magazines outside the school must be considered. Where homes provide little or no periodical literature of value to boys and girls, the obligation may rest heavily on the school to make up for the lack as far as finances permit, including the purchase of duplicates for home circulation. On the other hand, the availability of magazines through the public library must be taken into account. Good administration suggests that school and library jointly survey local conditions and act accordingly.

Selection.—Detailed criteria for the selection of magazines are now available in several excellent publications³ and will not be repeated here, but a few special problems merit attention. Among them, sponsorship and

¹ For further discussion of the practical problems involved in handling classroom periodicals, see Chapter XII.

² See Chapter XI.

³ Outstanding titles:

Martin, L. K. *Magazines for High Schools*. Wilson, 1941.

——— *Magazines for School Libraries*. Wilson, 1946.

The latter title is a revision of the first, covering the elementary as well as the secondary field, but omitting some areas of discussion.

editorial policy loom large, for upon these factors depends the slant of the publication, political, economic, literary, and social. An outstanding difficulty is that, like the names of the magazines, editors and policies change with disconcerting frequency. There is no such thing as deciding on the basis of the February, 1946, issue of any magazine what that of February, 1947, may be. A shuffle in editorial staff may result not only in completely transformed typography and format, but in new emphasis and new content. Where librarians are not alert to these changes, too many magazines, remarks Martin in her *Magazines for High Schools* "breathe their last" on library shelves long after once-interested readers have ceased to thumb them.

New magazines.—Newcomers in the magazine world are a source of perplexity. Promises of excellence made at their inception are not always borne out. Even the best exhibit occasional lapses that embarrass and shock the librarian who has been responsible for their inclusion in the library list. Moreover, in order to meet varied interests, some titles new or old may of necessity find a place on the library list in spite of obvious shortcomings. If the school has a flourishing dramatic club, it may be necessary to subscribe for a rather too sophisticated or too intellectual drama magazine regardless of its undesirable qualities, for the simple reason that nothing more appropriate exists. However, in the case of new titles, it is usually best to wait for a year or two until the periodical has a chance to demonstrate consistent adherence to its announced program. Meanwhile, sample copies may be examined or a brief subscription arranged for.

Youth magazines.—The perfect magazine for youth covering cultural and social areas as well as current events and fiction has yet to appear. While excellent titles are available in such special fields as science, there is a real dearth of outstanding general interest magazines produced especially for boys and girls who have outgrown juveniles and are still unready for adult reading. Periodicals such as the junior and senior *Scholastic*, *Seventeen*, and some with a religious sponsorship devoid of sectarian bias help to fill the gap, but none compare too favorably with outstanding adult publications which boys and girls frequently prefer to read.

Children's magazines.—In the field of magazine literature for children the situation appears to be definitely improving. The period of sterility existing after the *Youth's Companion* and *St. Nicholas* ceased to be published has now pretty well passed. According to a writer in the *Horn Book*

Magazine⁴ and to others familiar with children's literature, periodicals such as *Jack and Jill* and *Story Parade* are worthy successors of older titles, while, in special fields such as handicraft, natural science, and hobbies, the number of excellent titles is so large that another writer suggests the popularization of magazines for children has approached the boom stage.⁵

Magazines of local interest.—Since the modern curriculum tends to emphasize the local scene, particularly in the case of the social sciences, current information local or regional in character is in constant demand. *Westways* may supply just the biographical note on a California author or other celebrity needed in a California school; *Outdoor Indiana* or similar periodicals published by state governmental or promotional agencies perform a useful service in publicizing and describing resources and industries. The librarian should be on the alert to secure such titles, not a few of which are free for the asking.

Diversifying the collection.—While it is desirable to cover the reading interests of as many patrons of the school library as possible, both pupils and teachers, Martin⁶ suggests that for pupils the subscription list may include not more than one title in special fields such as aviation or hobbies, leaving to pupils who are fans the bringing of additional titles from home. Possible gifts from school organizations such as the drama club or the camera club may also be taken into account, and all hobby riders and clubs should be introduced to the rich resources of the public library and learn to follow individual interests there.

The problems involved in the provision of professional magazines for teachers were touched upon earlier in connection with the so-called "teachers' library" or teachers' reading room.⁷ In general, it can be said that while a few pedagogical periodicals of interest to all instructors in the particular school in which the library is located may well be subscribed for, it is better to leave to a central agency the provision of a collection diversified enough to meet the needs of special teachers.

Indexes.—One very practical consideration which influences the provision of periodicals is their indexing in the *Readers' Guide* or *Abridged Readers' Guide*. Magazines in the school are not thrown away at the end of six

⁴Ranlett, L. F. "Magazines for the Tens and Teens." *Horn Book Magazine* 22:271-77, July-August, 1944.

⁵Riggs, O. M. "Magazines for Children." *Educational Method* 21:135, December 1941.

⁶Martin. *Magazines for School Libraries*, op. cit., p.20.

⁷See p.161.



Magazines in the school library reflect the wide interests of high school students



Students relive history through records

Teachers and librarians learn to run projectors in the audio-visual room



months or a year if they have reference value. Instead, they are filed or bound for future use. If indexed in the above guides, one of which is a must in every good school library, their reference use is incalculably enhanced. It follows that, given two titles covering approximately the same field, one indexed and one not and both valuable for reference purposes, the choice should usually fall upon the indexed magazine.

Buying lists.—Of list-making in the magazine field there is no end, many lists being based on investigation of the preferences of boys and girls as well as on the opinions of teachers and librarians. A number of such investigations at both elementary and secondary levels are summarized in the two Martin volumes already cited and in current educational and library literature. Among pupils there is usually found to be a fair amount of agreement on a few (not more than four or five) “most enjoyed titles,” but there is often an “almost perfect inversion of estimated value” as between pupils and their teachers, i.e., a highly prized literary magazine which is tops on a list of titles preferred by English instructors may, and frequently does, drop to a very low place on the pupil list.

Such results are both danger signals and challenges—danger signals in that care must be exercised to see that pupils’ interests are kept definitely in view in using a buying list; challenges in that many poor choices on the part of pupils result from lack of contact with what is outstanding in magazine literature.

No list of titles “recommended for schools” can ever satisfactorily meet the needs of the individual school. Martin reports a growing reluctance among librarians to regard any particular title as indispensable. Of greater value than a list of “recommended titles” are publications such as Miss Martin’s own in which are to be found carefully considered, critical evaluations of a large number of individual titles likely to be candidates for school use. In arriving at these evaluations, the opinions of pupils, teachers and librarians are all considered. Indication is given of the field in which the magazine is likely to prove most useful, whether it is designed for the novice or the more advanced amateur, whether it has technical or literary excellence or both, what is currently its editorial policy, and what is likely to be its sociological impact.

2. *Newspapers.* Public opinion in America is probably more largely influenced by newspapers than by any other agency. For this reason there is a growing conviction among educators that much should be made of the newspaper in the school, both by supplying a reasonable number of desir-

able titles for voluntary reading and by duplicating titles needed for laboratory use. Spain reports^{*} that school library standards in ten states require the presence in the library of daily papers and Sunday editions of metropolitan papers; and educational literature shows that many duplicates will be required for classroom use.

In the secondary school library, the titles regularly subscribed for should be examples of outstanding journalism such as the *New York Times*, supplemented by a local sheet perhaps having lower standards but still desirable as a source of information about the community. Often the local paper may be secured as a gift, perhaps supplied a day late by a pupil or faculty member who brings it from home. If not an outstanding example of excellent journalism, its tardy appearance may be all to the good since the sporting page and crime headlines will have lost something of their appeal overnight, while accounts of public improvements, local celebrities, institutions and agencies are quite as valuable for reference use and the clippings file after the ink is thoroughly dry.

In spite of pressure for generous provision of newspaper literature in the library as well as in the classroom, some librarians view its presence with misgiving. In their observation, comics and sport pages claim student attention to the exclusion of more profitable reading.

The answer to this may well lie in including units in the curriculum on how to read a newspaper and courses in journalism not primarily devoted to learning the newspaper trade and getting out the school paper, but definitely aimed at bringing about intelligent use and evaluation of news-sheets. In many schools such instruction has not progressed far enough to have an appreciable effect on the voluntary newspaper reading of pupils, and librarians may have a point in suggesting that, until it does, subscriptions for the library should be limited while classroom needs are met through special purchase of issues required for laboratory purposes.

The need for adult newspapers in the school library decreases as we move downward from the senior high school to the elementary grades and in any particular elementary school will depend very largely upon the presence or absence of guided newspaper study. Some schools find certain juvenile news-sheets valuable. It is unfortunate that many of these

^{*} Spain, F. L. "The Application of School-Library Standards." In *National Society for the Study of Education. Forty-second Yearbook, Pt. II: The Library in General Education*. 1943, p.281. (Distributed by the Department of Education, Univ. of Chicago.)

publications represent high-minded experiments without sufficient financial backing or editorial talent to insure attractiveness, permanency, or consistent excellence.

3. Propagandistic periodicals. Propagandistic periodicals may be either magazines or newspapers, desirable or undesirable. As in the case of books, it is to be remembered that there is good propaganda as well as bad, and decisions as to acceptability are to be made accordingly. The nature of the school makes a difference, too. In a private school, the library may make available to pupils a periodical having obvious sectarian bias, but the same is not true in a public school. Periodicals betraying an undesirable propaganda slant through name-calling, exaggerated statement, distortion of facts and vitriolic style are definitely unacceptable in any school. On the other hand, reputable journals of opinion have a place on the magazine rack of the secondary school as spurs to critical thinking, and so do lesser publications, usually gifts, emanating from well-established agencies interested in the solution of social, economic, and governmental problems. High quality trade journals are propaganda of a sort, but their frank advertising of trade products need cause no more concern than that in other reputable periodicals. Their illustrations and descriptions of mechanical devices and processes make them definitely useful in a trade school and in connection with some types of shop work elsewhere.

4. Continuations. Selected annuals, reports, bulletins, and proceedings are useful in junior and senior high school libraries, but their number should be few compared with those available in the public library.

Many appear in the form of documents issued by federal or state governments. In the latter case, those issuing from the state in which the library is located are of first importance. If not brought to the librarian's attention through the good offices of the state school library agency they may be found by checking the *Monthly Checklist of State Publications* published by the Library of Congress Division of Documents. They should not be overlooked. The small sum put into a subscription for the *Monthly Checklist* is money well spent when it results in bringing to the library just the bulletin on historic homes in Ohio or the illustrated folder on Washington state parks for which teachers and pupils are looking.

Federal publications of value in the school library are readily identified through selected lists, i.e., those appearing in *The Booklist*, in *School Life* published by the U.S. Office of Education, and in the *Vertical File Service Catalog* of the H. W. Wilson Company. Most government publications

not of a current nature which should be available in a secondary school library may be found through the *Standard Catalog for High School Libraries*. In very few cases indeed is it necessary, or even desirable, for the library to acquire complete files of any government series, or of society bulletins, reports, or proceedings. There are, of course, exceptions such as the several series of the Pan American Union, or the *Bulletins* of the U.S. Office of Education (chiefly useful to teachers) and a few other serials that good sense and the special needs of the school suggest (U.S. Agriculture Department *Bulletins* in a rural school). For the most part the resources of the public library or the state library will be adequate to supply occasional demands for issues not on school library shelves.

III. PAMPHLETS AND CLIPPINGS^{*}

Even the tiniest library may have its file of pamphlets and clippings. Such materials cost next to nothing in money, and as reference aids they are invaluable. They have been called "short-cuts for the busy." Desirable types have been partially covered in our discussion of continuations. Mary E. Hall long ago set forth the place of the collection in the high school so well that all that is needed to bring her statement up to date is to substitute the "United Nations" for the "League of Nations":

Files of newspaper clippings and well-chosen collections of magazines and pamphlets make it possible for the library to place before the students the most up-to-date material on all questions of the day. Long before the end of the week, when the periodicals treat an important question or event, the newspaper clipping file has material ready. The day after the [United] Nations' constitution is published in the morning paper, it is ready in mounted form for constant reference by teachers and pupils who consult the clipping file, with all the editorial and other comment of the papers of the morning before, placed in the same envelope.

The newspaper clipping file is indispensable in the modern high school library. . . . In community civics and local matters of city or state it is the only source for many topics discussed in class. Arranged in large envelopes alphabetically in a vertical file it can be used readily by the youngest pupil. . . .

In a special drawer, marked "Community Civics," all the topics discussed in the community civics textbooks are represented by pamphlets and clippings, filed alphabetically under Fire Department, Parks, Water Supply, etc. Pupils and teachers are asked to help build up this collection so that it may meet all

^{*} For organization and care, see Chapter XII.

the needs of inquiring students. For debating and for oral English where a student must talk on an interesting current topic, for economics and general science this pamphlet and clipping file is a perfect treasure mine of information. . . .

. . . It makes for efficiency, if all the departments turn over to the library such pamphlet-material as they want the students to use for reference. Many of the departments overlap in their topics—food pamphlets are of interest to students of domestic science, of chemistry and of biology. If pamphlets are kept in department libraries there is unnecessary duplication or material is lacking which might have been available had one department known that the other had it. It has meant no small sacrifice to the departments to give up their treasures to this main collection, but they have themselves expressed their appreciation of the better organization and better methods of the library for keeping track of such material when lent to pupils or to teachers.¹⁰

1. Pamphlets.

Definition.—By a pamphlet we usually mean a publication other than a periodical, less lengthy than a book, and not as permanently bound, being stitched or stapled rather than sewed. However, some libraries distinguish between books and pamphlets wholly on the basis of an arbitrary number of pages: so many pages, a book; fewer pages, a pamphlet.

In the school library, almost any printed material (outside of periodicals) that exceeds a page or two in length and is of more or less ephemeral value may classify as a pamphlet. In the long run, definition depends more upon how a publication is treated than upon anything else—whether it is classified, catalogued, and placed on the shelf or merely assigned a subject heading and dropped into a vertical file.

Usefulness.—No school, elementary or secondary, public or private, can today carry on a program of education related to present day thinking, discovery, or social movements without recourse to pamphlets. World War II provided unforgettable demonstration of this fact. Events came so fast, and new types of information became so suddenly imperative that books could not be published rapidly enough. Every government bureau, every educational institution confronted with new courses, every agency devoted to war or peace betook itself to pamphleteering; and instructors, far more than formerly, abandoned the text if indeed there was a text, in favor of this newer and more up-to-date material.

¹⁰ Hall, M. E. "Development of the Modern High School Library." In Wilson, Martha. *School Library Experience*. Wilson, 1925, p.73-75. (Reprinted from *Library Journal* 40:627, September 1915.)

Long before, libraries had been accumulating files of pamphlet material: Merit badge booklets for boys of Scout age; brief literary and critical biographies supplied in the advertising media of publishing firms; up-to-the-minute monographs on vocations; brochures explanatory of manufacturing processes secured from industrial firms; illustrated travel literature supplied by tourist bureaus and commercial clubs; ideas for handicrafts and entertaining found in the booklets of paper manufacturing companies; "instruments of the modern symphony orchestra" emanating from a music firm; poems and essays extracted from old magazines; illustrated booklets on South and Central America from the Pan American Union. All had been found useful. And then, as the wartime flood poured forth, it was realized in many schools that the library was the only place where proper organization was possible and library custodianship of the new educational ephemera came about as a matter of course.

Selection.—How to discover and select the best current pamphlet material out of the ever-present flood poses a problem that can best be met through the use of the *Wilson Vertical File Service Catalog*, a comprehensive and yet selective monthly listing of pamphlets most valuable to libraries. Provided with this tool, which cumulates like most of the Wilson indexes, a librarian is not likely to miss much that is worth while other than items of a local nature. If the *Catalog* cannot somehow be examined (in some school systems a single copy is subscribed for by the central office and thus made available to all) other sources not as comprehensive may be consulted such as the lists appearing in *The Booklist* and the *Publishers' Weekly*.¹¹

For noncurrent pamphlet titles the *Standard Catalog for High School Libraries* is probably the best source for the secondary school because it is frequently revised. The many other guides to pamphlet material that appear from time to time also have their uses, particularly when they deal with special subject areas. But most of them suffer from the fact that many entries are out of print almost before the list is published.

Pamphlet "services."—A word of caution is needed concerning certain "educational pamphlet services" which are of doubtful value to the school since they do not cover the field as thoroughly or as carefully as sources already mentioned, are frequently short-lived and unreliable, and substi-

¹¹ For a comprehensive and frequently revised listing of guides to pamphlet materials see Brown, Zaidee. *Short Cuts to Information*. Reprinted from *The Library Key*. Wilson. (Latest ed.)

tute for the simple and well-established methods of the library elaborate filing systems and files provided at unnecessary expense.¹²

Such services are not to be confused with the businesslike methods of a pamphlet agent or jobber through whom pamphlets may be ordered in much the same way as books are ordered through a reputable dealer.¹³

Government publications.—The importance of the government as a publisher of pamphlets useful in schools¹⁴ will not be overlooked by the librarian who makes a practice of checking the sources already mentioned, for the cream of government issues appears there.

Local materials.—A special word should be added about the local materials that escape notice in general lists. Here the librarian, aided by teachers and pupils, must be an industrious collector of commercial club and tourist bureau brochures, local society publications, publicity put out by community industries, and so on. This local material will naturally be supplemented and perhaps exceeded by clippings and pictures, of which more later.

Controversial items.—Possibly more than in the case of books and periodicals it will be necessary to safeguard the pamphlet collection from unfortunate propaganda. Whenever controversial literature is admitted, great care should be taken to see that both sides are represented. Guidance for the unwary may be provided through the use of a stamp reading: "For material on the other side of this question, see. . . .," the blank space to be filled in with "other pamphlets in this folder," "books listed in the card catalog under the subject," or some other appropriate phrase.

2. *Clippings.* The distinction between clippings and pamphlets is chiefly one of length. While a pamphlet seldom includes less than two or three pages, a clipping may be a single sheet or less. Processing and care of such ephemera are outlined later and should be carried out in the light of advice from professional sources.¹⁵

On the whole, clippings other than local items not otherwise available

¹² For critical reviews of these "services" see *Subscription Books Bulletin* 13:4, October 1942.

¹³ At the present time, Bacon and Wieck, Northport, Long Island, New York, provide a good example of the pamphlet jobber. Write for circular.

¹⁴ Two articles worth reading in this connection are:

Bixler, P. H. "Uncle Sam's Best Sellers." *Saturday Review of Literature* 18:3-4, May 28, 1938.

Stern, E. M. "Nation's No. 1 Publisher." *Saturday Review of Literature* 23:3-4, February 15, 1941.

¹⁵ See Chapter XII.

should be collected discreetly. They should supplement books and magazines rather than substitute for them because they are apt to be less authoritative and although costing less in money, are expensive of time. Always, the librarian must decide what is to be clipped and must herself assign appropriate subject headings since pupil assistants and clerical workers lack requisite knowledge and judgment.

Favorite sources for clippings are newspapers and magazines, but into the clippings file may also go mimeographed items, pages from worn-out books, programs and what not.

IV. GRAPHIC MATERIALS

1. **Pictures.** In general the term "pictures" covers the contents of the so-called library picture file: postcards, photographs, blueprints, engravings, and many items drawn from very humble sources such as newspaper pictorials and the advertising pages of magazines. They are used chiefly in classroom situations where they are passed about or posted. They may be thrown on a screen by means of a reflectoscope or made available to pupils engaged in special projects—as when members of a class studying poster design or commercial art require pictures of objects they are about to draw or paint.

It is consistently to be remembered that pictures are most easily handled when of a size to be stored in the vertical file and, also, that the value of pictures does not rest on their costliness but upon their relationship to the curriculum. Many a collection is made up almost exclusively of items clipped with curriculum units in view. More ambitious collections may of course include purchased sets of art reproductions, colored plates and so on. Care should be taken to avoid overlappings with special collections housed in other departments of the school or easily available through loans from an outside agency. Often, a film or slide may serve better than a picture mounted or unmounted, but the picture file has not as yet been superseded, nor is it likely to be very soon. Inexpensiveness and utilization of its materials where projection apparatus is lacking or inconvenient to use are among the reasons for its retention.

One type of picture not housed in the vertical file is the stereograph. Sets of these photographs—made three dimensional through the use of the simple apparatus known as the stereoscope—are still popular with young children. They are cared for in special boxes.

2. **Miscellaneous.** Complete descriptive catalogs of the varied types of

graphic materials in use in schools are to be found in educational literature.¹⁶ Only selected items will be discussed here.

Charts, pictographs and posters.—Among those which should be housed in the library to the extent that filing facilities permit are charts, pictographs and posters. If in an old structure adequate files or storage cupboards are not available, items such as these stored in classrooms may well be listed in the library and referred to in the catalog to bring them into general use. Special library posters, both homemade and commercially produced, should be filed for future use after the immediate occasion which called them forth has passed. Excellent posters for purposes of library publicity are available through library supply firms.

Book jackets.—Book jackets have so many uses in the library that they are universally saved. Some librarians file them under subject as a means of facilitating their use in posters and on bulletin boards.

Maps, plans, framed pictures.—Wall maps are so generally provided in classrooms that there may be little occasion for the library to build an independent collection. But like other materials of learning, such maps may well be listed in the library in order that they may not be lost to the school as a whole. If the library is operating as a materials center, they may be circulated from that center as occasion demands.

Pictorial maps such as "*The Booklovers Map of America*,"¹⁷ whether belonging to the library or not, should be listed there—again to insure wide use. The same is true of framed pictures decorating the walls of the school building, or other art objects of value for instructional purposes. Just what form the record is to take may be left to the librarian, but entries will certainly indicate artist, subject, and location in the building.

The maps which the library keeps in its vertical file have in the past tended to be limited to more or less casual items not available elsewhere in the school: street maps; road maps from tourist bureaus; railroad maps issued as folders; historical, industrial or other maps clipped from current publications or discarded books; aerial maps, polar projection maps and star maps similarly acquired. Now, however, wall maps with eyelets can be obtained in folded form, suitable for filing. Librarians have found

¹⁶ See, for example, McKown, H. C., and Roberts, A. H. *Audio-Visual Aids to Instruction*. McGraw-Hill, 1940.

¹⁷ Attractive literary maps like this are available through purchase from R. P. Bowker and Company and other firms listed in the *Standard Catalog for High School Libraries* under 700—"Fine Arts—Sources for Pictures."

these excellent for circulation to classrooms when a number of instructors are teaching the same subjects.

Plans do not ordinarily occupy a very large place in the school library save for ground plans of occasional buildings famous in history or architecture, or collections of plans clipped from magazines for the use of classes in such subjects as architectural drawing or home economics.

V. MUSEUM OBJECTS

The school museum is designed primarily for the display and storage of objects and collections made by pupils: models, rock and mineral collections, etc. It may also house articles used by instructors in connection with classroom teaching: a model of the Roman forum, a cloth-making exhibit complete with cotton bolls, pictures or models of spinning and weaving apparatus, samples of yarn, and so on. In newer buildings, space may be set aside for museum purposes, the suggestion not infrequently being made that it should adjoin or be comprehended in the library suite and be administered by the librarian.

If the library is operated as a materials center and has an adequate clerical staff, such an arrangement may be eminently desirable. Otherwise it is open to question. But, regardless of the decision made about the administration of the school museum and its contents, the library existing in a community where loan collections are available from art and other museums should not miss the opportunities thus afforded for bringing to the school many educational and cultural exhibits.

VI. AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS MECHANICALLY OPERATED

In an article written a decade ago, but which is still good reading, a supervisor of school libraries¹⁸ made it clear that, with the introduction of moving pictures and radio, education had entered upon an audio-visual era, and suggested that the library must follow suit.

The educational backgrounds of the ever increasing demand for audio-visual materials are well understood by practicing librarians, many of whom have delved wholeheartedly into the abundant literature of the subject, particularly in radio and moving picture fields, and have invented ingenious methods for the care and servicing of newer materials as they came along. Discussion of educational methods and the library

¹⁸ Greer, M. R. "Visual Aids and the School Library." *Wilson Library Bulletin* 10:573, May 1936.

in its curricular relationships should have made it equally clear to prospective librarians why audio-visual materials mechanical in nature demand their thoughtful attention and study. The field is of sufficient importance to rate a special course in the library science curriculum, or at least a considerable number of units to which the present chapter may provide an introduction. It is necessarily confined to a survey of types of materials, their sources and use, and selected references for further reading and study. Suggestions for equipment will be found in Chapter X, and for organization, care and handling, in Chapter XII which deals with the technical organization of all library resources.

1. *Types of materials.* With the exception of the stereograph, visual aids to learning requiring no mechanical appliances to make them serviceable have been the only ones so far considered. But more important from the educational point of view is a growing number of others requiring mechanical manipulation. Briefly defined, the most important ones follow:¹⁹

Slides.—Slides are available in two principal forms: the standard slide (3¼ inches by 4 inches) an individual picture on glass or cellophane long utilized by teachers and still well liked where motion and continuity of process are not prime considerations; and miniature slides (2 inches by 2 inches) usually composed of 35-millimeter single- or double-frame film protected by glass or cardboard masks. Miniatures differ from standard slides only in size and film base and are very generally coming into favor. Libraries, report Schreiber and Calvert,²⁰ are rapidly substituting them for the standard slide with its problems of breakage and storage. Another element in the popularity of the small slide is the availability of miniature cameras which makes possible the production of such slides in the school itself.

Filmstrips.—Filmstrips (also called film slides or slide films) are a series of pictures photographed sequentially on 35-millimeter film base. They are easy to transport, require a minimum of storage space and, because of their pliability, seldom break.

Sound filmstrips.—Sound filmstrips are the same as the above filmstrips except that they are provided with commentary by a record reproduced via a loudspeaker.

¹⁹ Largely summarized from Schreiber, R. E., and Calvert, Leonard. *Building an Audio-Visual Program*. Science Research Associates, 1946.

²⁰ Op. cit., p.20.

Silent motion picture film.—Silent motion picture film, non-inflammable, 16-millimeters in width by 400 feet in length is standard for school use. A reel of such silent film provides about a 15-minute picture, occupies very little storage space, and may be used in projection apparatus simple enough for a pupil to operate. It can be produced locally with the aid of a good 16-millimeter silent movie camera.

Sound film.—Sound film in the 16-millimeter width is standard and is so manufactured as to operate sound apparatus. It requires a projector which is larger, heavier, and more expensive than that for silent pictures, but can be operated successfully by teachers, or by pupils from the fifth grade up. In other respects it is similar to silent film.

Records.—Recordings are available in two forms: 12-inch phonograph records rotating at seventy-eight revolutions per minute; and 16-inch recordings, chiefly radio transcriptions, rotating at thirty-three and one-third revolutions per minute and played on a phonograph or playback whose motor rotates at the same rate. Phonograph records may be made into 16-inch transcriptions which provide the advantages of less surface scratch and better reproductions of voice and musical tone.

Through recordings, a radio program may be picked up and repeated at the time it will best fit into the school program.

Broadcasts.—Many schools are now equipped with public address systems by means of which announcements and programs originating in the school itself may be transmitted throughout the building. In a large school system there may be a radio broadcasting center from which educational and cultural programs, either originating in the studio or made available through transcription, are transmitted to the various units of the system. The introduction of "FM" (frequency modulation), straightline high-fidelity transmission free from static, has greatly enhanced the possibilities for educational broadcasting from local or regional centers. Although audibility of the original broadcast is limited to about fifty miles, the program may be picked up and rebroadcast over a wider area.

2. Apparatus. The mechanical appliances through which visual materials are thrown on the screen and sound materials are made audible have been mentioned in a general way. Without going into technical details or mentioning trade names it suffices to say that apparatus should be comparatively inexpensive, easily movable, simple to operate, and reasonably safe. Before a projector or other apparatus is purchased, standard types should be studied and tested, the latter often being possible through demonstra-

tions by local dealers. Guarantee of repair and inspection service through the local dealer is also desirable.

Apparatus may be owned by the library or may be available through another department or an audio-visual center. For the individual library a former director of audio-visual education suggests²¹ that there should be provided at least one 16-millimeter sound motion picture projector, and also a 2 inch by 2 inch combination slide and strip film projector, a portable radio, and a dual speed portable transcription player.

3. Educational uses. In his handbook,²² Dent has said that, educationally considered, audio-visual aids are visual-sensory materials used in teaching situations "to facilitate the understanding of the written or spoken word."

This definition, like others generally accepted, sets the stage for discussion of the educational uses of audio-visual materials by emphasizing that they are not complete in themselves and cannot replace either teachers or print. It also makes clear that elucidation and not mere entertainment is their primary function. This is not to say that recreational use is totally frowned upon, for it is not. Such utilization has its place but not the chief place. Thus, theatrical films may be shown in the auditorium primarily for entertainment; and still there is the realization that, as someone has written, they may serve much the same purpose as free reading or browsing periods in the library, providing both pleasure and acquaintance with new areas of living.

Aside from theatrical films, audio-visual materials are now largely used in classroom situations where they bear directly on units of work in progress. Frequent examples of such use having been given earlier in these pages in connection with discussion of educational methods and library activities, not much will be added at this point. However, aids making the approach to the learner through his ears need emphasis because they have not as yet received as wide recognition from the library as those approaching the learner through his eyes. Recordings lent to classrooms or broadcast over the public address system may, for example, open discussion by outlining outstanding issues; or they may be a follow-up of group discussion, enabling pupils to compare their conclusions with those

²¹ Lt. Francis W. Noel, former director of audio-visual education in Santa Barbara, California public schools.

²² Dent, E. C. *Audio-Visual Handbook*. Society for Visual Education, Inc. 3d ed. 1939, p.1.

of experts. They may be used to stimulate reading as when the rendering of a famous speech or a scene from Dickens sends listeners to the library to become better acquainted with the setting or to read the entire selection. Heard in the classroom, they "bring reality to the study of poetry, drama, or language."

Films too may be used to open or to motivate discussion as well as to provide pictorial representation of places and peoples, to elucidate processes, to analyze the workings of a piece of machinery, or to show the learner how to handle tools. Thus "Janie," a movie about young people in a typical American town, portrays situations that, according to Hoban,²³ lead to thoughtful consideration of the problems confronting youth.

Among the advantages of the types of audio-visual aids outlined in the last few pages is the fact that all members of a class or auditorium group are able to see and hear simultaneously. It is not necessary to interrupt instruction to pass pictures around the classroom, and it is possible for a group of learners, or for several groups at a time, to participate in a lesson broadcast from a central studio by an expert teacher. Besides, utilization of motion and sound captures and retains attention as words alone sometimes fail to do. In the case of poor readers particularly, processes are more easily understood and mastered when analyzed on the screen than when described in print.

4. **Functions of the library.** Under the heading "The Audio-Visual Librarian," Schreiber and Calvert²⁴ state that this individual "must be thoroughly acquainted with all types of audio-visual materials and equipment, their uses and applications." If this looks like a large order, it may be added that many librarians are rapidly acquiring such familiarity through private study, special instruction, and association with experts in the local school system. Schreiber and Calvert themselves suggest that training may be had through acting as assistants in well-organized film libraries, through college or extension courses, or through reading.

According to these authors, the major responsibilities of the library are: providing information for teachers concerning sources of audio-visual aids through making catalogs and lists available; acquisition and cataloging of materials; storage and care; and scheduling and routing of materials and equipment. But this list of responsibilities is inadequate. To it should be

²³ Hoban, C. F., and others. *Vitalizing the Curriculum*. Cordon, New York, 1937, p.98-105.

²⁴ *Op. cit.*, p.39.

added cooperation in all audio-visual activities through the preparation of bibliographies, the previewing of films, and the display and circulation of correlative printed materials. Other services to the school include inauguration or furtherance of radio and film activities featuring library use, introducing readable books, and publicizing through bulletin boards, "stills," etc., worth-while radio programs and movies commercially produced outside the school. The library also makes available books on method and technique for the use of amateur producers and operators in the school itself, some of whom, as suggested elsewhere, may work cooperatively with the library in the care and operation of projection and sound equipment. The library may also provide within its own walls facilities for projection and listening.

The classification, cataloging and circulation of audio-visual materials ought not to present insuperable problems to a librarian having a basic knowledge of these techniques as applied to other library materials: Suggestions on method are made in Chapter XII.²⁵ But circumstances alter cases and most librarians find in this comparatively new field many challenges to ingenuity in adapting processes and routines.

Knowledge of sources can be acquired through current educational and library literature and lists such as those appearing as appendices in the *Educational Film Guide*, an outstanding source book.²⁶

Operation and maintenance of apparatus can be provided for through paid personnel or student groups who may work under the supervision of a member of the science faculty. Most librarians find that, as a rule, classroom teachers welcome an operator along with films and machine, and that such an arrangement gives better satisfaction to all. Here is a chance for the organization of an audio-visual "crew," corresponding to the more usual library squad or committee. Help from the science department will almost certainly be indispensable unless a special technical assistant, trained in the essentials of adjustment, repairs, and so on, is available.

5. Evaluation of audio-visual materials. As in the case of books and magazines, evaluation of audio-visual materials must be painstakingly critical. Many of the rules applicable to book selection apply, but special criteria must also be employed. As a member of the previewing or audition committee interested not only in the integration of materials with other

²⁵ See also McDonald, G. D. *Educational Motion Pictures and Libraries*. A.L.A., 1942, Appendix C, p.154-56.

²⁶ See also bibliography at end of this chapter.

library resources but in seeing that only the best are selected, the librarian should make a study of these criteria. A few are summarized here in question form with the suggestion that they be followed with a perusal of some of the excellent treatises in the subject.²⁷

CRITERIA FOR EVALUATING AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

Films

Has the film been produced for a specialized audience rather than for popular appeal?

Does it contribute to or motivate mental activity by raising questions and problems, sending the student in search of further information, or suggesting experimentation?

Is the information conveyed in the film easily grasped, reliable, free from undesirable propaganda, unfettered by irrelevant facts?

At what age levels or in what school grades or curricular fields will it be useful?

Is the subject unduly dramatized or treated in such a manner as to leave the wrong impression or encourage false conclusions?

Is commentary limited to enhancing understanding—not overloaded with unnecessary details?

Is the motion slow enough for adequate observation and the reel short enough to be used within a single school period while leaving time for discussion?

Are pictures clear-cut, interesting and not cluttered with detail?

Records and Broadcasts

Some of the above criteria apply equally well in the case of records and broadcasts, but here fidelity in the reproduction of voices, musical instruments and so on must be considered. Additional questions are:

Is the orator, narrator or musician outstanding in his mastery of the art of public speaking, dramatization or music?

Are the selections within the grasp of the school audience?

On the mechanical side, whether the materials undergoing evaluation are slides, films or records, ease and safety in operation are always to be considered, as well as durability and possibility of repair.

VII. AUDIO-VISUAL CENTERS AND DISTRIBUTING AGENCIES

I. *Centers.* An audio-visual center is little different from a central library except that it stocks and distributes a different sort of materials.

²⁷ Hoban, *op. cit.*, should be read entire for its sidelights on the choice of films.

In a school system maintaining a central library, the two may be combined or they may be operated separately; but in either case audio-visual materials may be, and preferably are, distributed to individual schools and classrooms through their own libraries.

The advantages of centralized buying, processing and cataloging that eventuate from maintaining a book center apply to the audio-visual center with even greater emphasis for the reason that materials and appliances are frequently expensive and through careful scheduling can be made to serve many units of the system. Storage, repair and general upkeep are managed by experts, leaving the librarian in the individual school greater opportunity to work with teachers and pupils in selecting and correlating materials with other library resources. Films, records and the like arrive from the central office with a modicum of delay after selection has been made in the school with the help of catalogs available in the library and of annotated lists of current offerings such as *Film and Book* issued by the Newark, New Jersey, Board of Education Center. Frequently the books, audio-visual aids, and projection and sound apparatus required in connection with a special unit of learning in the school arrive together on the same delivery.

2. **Distributing agencies.** In the absence of a local center, the library may rent or borrow materials through various types of agencies often designated as "film libraries." Such an agency may be purely commercial, in which case it functions much like a book jobber except that it frequently rents more than it sells. Or the distributing agency may be governmental, industrial, theatrical, philanthropic, or educational.²⁸ Charges for rental or purchase from such sources are minimum, often being limited to the cost of transportation if, indeed, materials are not available gratis, sometimes along with projection equipment and an operator.

"Free" films often come from industrial or public utility sources as a part of their public relations activities. While often of outstanding excellence photographically, these must be critically examined from the propaganda angle and from the point of view of their relation to the curriculum.

Films available from theatrical producers are, according to Hoban,²⁹ of two principal sorts: "shorts," and excerpts from feature pictures usually

²⁸ Hoban, C. F. *Focus on Learning*. American Council on Education, 1942, Appendix A, p.155-58.

²⁹ *Ibid.*, p.157.

"intended as springboards for student discussion of various problems of human relations."

Films available from associations and institutions, philanthropic and cultural, are not as numerous as those from some other agencies but may bear closely on the curriculum as, for example, those on Latin America coming from the Pan American Union or others dealing with health or with art sometimes available through local health organizations or art museums.

The distribution centers working most closely, extensively, and successfully with schools from the curriculum point of view are governmental or educational in character. Federal departments such as those of Agriculture, the Interior, and the Office of Education all produce and distribute at moderate cost valuable audio-visual aids to learning. State agencies may do the same, the most outstanding being the bureaus participated in or maintained by institutions of higher learning or state departments of education. The librarian should try to get acquainted with all such agencies.

Cooperative film libraries have been established by some school systems and by extension divisions of state colleges and universities. Each school deposits one or more films, being privileged in return to borrow those deposited by other schools. The film and record collections now maintained by some public libraries should not be forgotten either since schools as well as the general public may borrow from these sources.

3. Renting and borrowing. From the educational point of view, the chief drawback to dependence on outside distributing agencies arises in connection with scheduling. It is hard to foresee weeks or months in advance the particular date on which a unit of study demanding the use of films, records, or slides may eventuate, and in the absence of timing such aids lose their usefulness to a considerable degree. Whether to rent, or to borrow, or to buy consequently becomes an important question. On the whole, since unit costs of minor items such as filmstrips, slides and transcriptions are relatively low, there is a growing tendency to buy. The argument advanced is similar to that for maintaining continuously in the school library books required for current classroom use even where supplementary reading materials may be borrowed from an outside center. It is probably better to rent than to buy the more expensive items such as long sound films or theatrical reels whose values may be broadly cultural, informative, or recreational. In any case, where the audio-visual program is in its infancy, thus requiring much experimentation, the renting or borrowing of instructional materials is probably the wisest course.

VIII. EXPENSE

Outside of periodicals and audio-visual materials requiring the use of complicated apparatus, the expense involved in providing the "other materials of learning" discussed in this chapter need not be great, but should nevertheless be recognized in the library budget.

How far the library should go in the acquisition of more expensive items and the apparatus with which to use them depends upon the budget and the existence of a local center through which materials are obtained without expense to the individual school. Recommendations such as that made by the American Council on Education in 1944³⁰ that 1 per cent of the annual per-pupil cost be considered as a minimum operating figure for the audio-visual program are worth considering but must be interpreted in the light of local conditions. Whatever sum is fixed upon, one thing is certain; the amount needed to provide the school with essential audio-visual materials and services should not be subtracted from the budget for printed materials, but added to it.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

GENERAL LIST

KIRK, MARGUERITE, and others. "Other Aids to Learning." In National Society for the Study of Education. Forty-second Yearbook, Pt. II: The Library in General Education. 1943, p.176-218. (Distributed by the Department of Education, Univ. of Chicago.)

All types of library materials other than books are discussed as to usefulness, sources, organization and handling. The sections on audio-visual aids are filled with compact information. Bibliographies are ample and up to date.

McKOWN, H. C., and ROBERTS, A. B. *Audio-Visual Aids to Instruction*. McGraw-Hill, 1940.

The functions of audio-visual materials, types, apparatus, administration, sources, architectural considerations. Many illustrations.

NOEL, F. W. "Initiating an Audio-Visual Department." In *American School and University Annual* 16:100-3. 1944.

Boiled down, practical advice and information for the librarian contemplating the inauguration of an audio-visual department.

U.S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION. *School Use of Visual Aids*. The Office, 1938. (Bulletin no.4)

What visual materials are found in schools and how they are used. Chapter II: objects, specimens, models and the school museum. Chapters III and IV: still pictures, graphic presentations, motion pictures.

³⁰ Seaton, H. H. *A Measure for Audio-Visual Programs in Schools*. American Council on Education, 1944.

—— Sources of Visual Aids for Instructional Use in Schools. Rev. ed. The Office, 1941. (Pamphlet 80)

Handy guide to addresses of commercial firms and other agencies. Sources classified under broad headings. Needs revision, but still useful.

WHEELING, K. E., and HILSON, J. A. Audio-Visual Materials for Junior and Senior High School Reading. Rev. ed. Wilson, 1941.

Lists pictures, filmstrips, slides, motion pictures, records and illustrated editions. Useful in connection with seventy-five authors and subjects most frequently encountered in literature courses.

PAMPHLETS AND CLIPPINGS

Since most titles discussing pamphlets are weighted heavily on the side of organization, they are listed in the bibliography for Chapter XII.

The present list is limited to sources and includes only titles frequently revised or covering current offerings. Zaidee Brown's Short Cuts to Information may be consulted for additional titles.

The Booklist. A.L.A. (Semimonthly)

In addition to its lists of books, this publication carries lists of pamphlets and government publications useful to libraries.

Standard Catalog for High School Libraries. Wilson. (Latest edition and annual supplements.) Sold on service basis.

Outstanding pamphlet titles are listed under subject.

Vertical File Service Catalog. Wilson.

A monthly listing under subject heading of pamphlets currently available, with descriptive notes and price or conditions under which obtainable. Each issue contains a title index, and there is an annual cumulation. Sold on service basis.

PERIODICALS

MARTIN, L. K. Magazines for High Schools. Wilson, 1941.

—— Magazines for School Libraries. Wilson, 1946.

These two titles contain material that is at once authoritative and extremely useful. In addition to general discussion, a number of important studies are summarized. Evaluations of individual magazines will be useful in selection.

The second title omits certain material appearing in the first and adds an extended section on children's magazines.

RANLETT, L. F. "Magazines for the Tens and 'Teens." *Horn Book Magazine* 22:271-77. July-August 1944.

The best-known periodicals for younger readers described and evaluated.

TENNESSEE SCHOOL LIBRARIAN'S COMMITTEE. Selected List of Magazines for High School Libraries; based on Magazines for High Schools by Laura K. Martin. Tennessee State Department of Education, 1943.

A selected list useful where the Martin books are not available. Distributed free to Tennessee schools, available to others at slight cost.

GRAPHIC MATERIALS

(See also discussion and lists of sources included in titles appearing under the heading "General List" preceding.)

Standard Catalog for High School Libraries. Wilson. (Latest edition and annual supplements.)

Under Fine Arts (700) appears a most complete annotated list of sources for all sorts of pictures, maps, etc. Addresses of dealers given.

AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS MECHANICALLY OPERATED

General Reading

(See bibliography, Chapter X for articles dealing with equipment.)

HOBAN, C. F., jr. Focus on Learning; Motion Pictures in the School. American Council on Education, 1942.

A treatise prepared for the Committee on Motion Pictures in Education of the American Council on Education. Defines the functions of motion pictures and discusses their use from the point of view of the classroom instructor. A "must" for the school librarian.

LEVENSON, W. B. Teaching Through Radio. Farrar & Rinehart, 1945.

The director of a radio laboratory in a large school system writes of methods and accomplishment.

MCDONALD, G. D. Educational Motion Pictures and Libraries. A.L.A., 1942.

Clear-cut discussion of educational uses of films and their organization, care, and distribution. Chapter 5, "Films in the School Library" will be of particular interest, and likewise the appendices descriptive of cataloging practice, charging routines, etc.

GRAHAM, MAE. "Training of School Librarians in Audio-Visual Materials and Their Use." A.L.A. Bulletin 40:199-200, June 1946.

The nature of units of study introduced into one library school curriculum is set forth.

SCHRIEBER, R. E., and CALVERT, LEONARD. Building an Audio-Visual Program. Science Research Associates, 1946.

A practical little manual useful to the amateur in the audio-visual field.

Useful Periodicals

Film World (What new equipment is coming out.)

Educational Screen

See and Hear (Teachers like this.)

Sources

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION. Committee on Motion Pictures in Education. Selected Educational Motion Pictures; a Descriptive Encyclopedia. The Council, 1942.

"Detailed content descriptions and educational appraisals, length, and sources are given for nearly 500 films." The most selective of the educational catalogs.

— Recordings Division. Educational Recordings for Classroom Use. Rev. ed. 1941.

"This lists over 1000 recordings. The Division sells recordings of the radio series, *Cavalcade of America*," and distributes English literature and United States history series, and others. Address: 152 W. 42d Street, New York City.

Educational Film Guide. (Formerly the Educational Film Catalog.)

A comprehensive, classified, descriptive list of 16-millimeter films published monthly except for the summer months by the H. W. Wilson Company, and cumulated. Symbols indicate source, age to which suited, etc. Appendix gives directory of producers and distributors. Contains a graded classified list of films suitable for educational purposes. Sold on service basis.

FEDERAL RADIO COMMISSION. Educational Radio and Transcription Exchange Catalog. This catalog (10c) may be consulted for details of the Commission's free circulating library of scripts and other radio publications and for lists of the records and transcriptions available to institutional borrowers.

NEW TOOLS FOR LEARNING. Catalog.

Lists films, recordings, radio transcripts, and pamphlets. Arranged by subject. Published by a service organization in which the New York University Film Library, the Public Affairs Committee, and the University of Chicago Round Table cooperate. Free. Address New Tools for Learning, 7 W. 16th Street, New York City 11.

NEW YORK UNIVERSITY FILM LIBRARY. Recordings Division. Catalog of Selected Educational Recordings. (Secure latest ed.)

Useful in connection with specific areas of the curriculum. Evaluations reliable. The Recordings Division of the American Council on Education was merged with this New York University agency in 1942.

1000 and One; the Blue Book of Non-Theatrical Films. Educational Screen, 64 E. Lake Street, Chicago. (Secure latest ed.)

Over 5000 films briefly described. Useful for locating film sources, but annotations inadequate for purposes of selection.

Victor Directory of 16 mm Film Sources. Victor Animatograph Corporation, Davenport, Iowa. (Latest ed.)

Gives name of distributor, type of film offerings, and conditions for obtaining. Particularly useful in locating industrial films, but critical evaluations must be sought elsewhere.

Y.M.C.A. Motion Picture Bureau, 347 Madison Avenue, New York is one of the best sources for free films.

Local sources include public utilities such as telephone and electric lighting systems, Eastman Kodak stores, and public libraries. State university extension agencies, state departments of education, and federal departments also provide films and transcriptions.

Periodicals containing descriptions of films together with brief appraisals: *Educational Screen*, *Film News*, *Scholastic*, *School Executive*, *Nation's Schools*, *Secondary Education*.

FILM CENTERS

KIRK, MARGUERITE. "Film and Book." *A.L.A. Bulletin* 33:218-22, October 15, 1939.

The librarian of a Board of Education Department of Library and Visual Aids tells how a successful film center works in integrating films and books.

RAKESTRAW, B. B. "The Library as a Cooperative Unit in Film Distribution." *A.L.A. Bulletin* 33:216-18, October 15, 1939. (Abridged)

The author doubts the advisability of placing on the shoulders of a busy librarian the organization and care of the film collection and advises that the library operate as a coordinating and distributing center for films arriving from a central agency.

Housing and Equipment

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|---|---|
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I. PLANNING TO FIT THE SCHOOL

All good school library planning is functional. In every case it is necessary to develop a plan designed for a specific type of school and adequate to facilitate essential services in a school of that type.

According to a recent Committee on Planning School Library Quarters,¹ the types of public schools for which there may be occasion to plan libraries are: elementary schools; high schools; combination schools in which elementary grades and high school are associated administratively, often in one building; technical and trade schools; and schools which are a part of teacher-training centers. To this list may be added private schools

¹ American Library Association. American Association of School Librarians Committee on Planning School Library Quarters. *Dear Mr. Architect*. American Association of School Librarians, 1946, p.1. (Multigraphed ed.)

which, particularly if operated as boarding schools, present special situations. So do elementary schools of six rooms or less where, according to the Committee itself, a separate library room may not be practicable, but adequate classroom provision for books plus a small space for central placement of certain materials may be substituted.

The services to be provided for include housing for books and related materials and part, if not all, of the audio-visual aids to learning used in the school; circulation of the above; reading, reference and related activities of pupils and teachers working individually or in groups; administrative and technical services performed by the library staff.

II. AREAS AND SPACE ALLOWANCES

The Committee on Planning School Library Quarters suggests the following areas² for the services enumerated: a circulation and reading center; storage and work space; areas for small-group conferences and for projection and listening purposes (the audio-visual area); and "a few square feet of his own" for the librarian.

As space allowances for these areas, the Committee recommendations are:³

Circulation and reading center:

TWENTY-FIVE SQUARE FEET PER READER

For elementary schools, space for seating the largest class (about thirty-five) plus twenty.

For high schools, space for seating 15 to 20 per cent of the enrollment.

For combination schools, space for seating 15 to 20 per cent of the high school enrollment and the largest elementary class plus twenty. The total minimum seating capacity should be seventy-five.

Storage and work space:

From 200 to 230 square feet. (In the larger school, work and storage spaces should be separate: workroom, 150 square feet; storage, 200 square feet.)

Conference space:

About 120 square feet per room, the number of rooms running from one in the small library to a possible maximum of four in the large library, with additional space for the use of practice teachers in libraries operating in teacher-training institutions.

² *Ibid.*, p.2.

³ *Ibid.*

Space for projection and listening purposes:

Area equivalent to that of an average classroom.

A few square feet of his own for the librarian (office space)

Approximately 120 square feet which in the small library may be combined with work and storage space.

The 25 square feet per pupil station in the circulation and reading center recommended by the Committee has long been the estimate favored by librarians. It allows for area occupied by furniture such as the circulation desk, files, and exhibit cases, so that actually the space per reader is considerably under 25 square feet. It assumes that the arrangement of the room will be informal and uncrowded, with generous table and aisle space for groups numbering about six per table, and perhaps for some pupils seated at individual reading desks or occupying comfortable chairs dissociated from either desks or tables.

III. LOCATION IN BUILDING

Various sites for the library suite within the school building have been proposed; much of course depending on the general architectural plan, main traffic arteries within the school, the location of other study and activity units, lighting, need for quiet, and possibilities for expansion.

In the past, placing the library on the second floor front of a two- or three-story building was advocated on the theory that this location was central and close to the main line of traffic upwards via stairways from the front entrance of the building. This location might also offer pleasing architectural features such as a great bay window or greater depth for the reading room since the walls of school buildings are often thrust outward near the front entrance. Such factors are without question worth considering but only, as a little thought will prove, in relation to certain other considerations.

In a survey of plans shown in the *American School Board Journal*, Currin came to the conclusion that best arrangements not only centralized the library suite in relation to the main traffic arteries of the building, but also placed them "adjacent to the heart of the area devoted to quiet study and traditional classrooms."⁴

⁴ Currin, A. M. "Internal Organization and Administration." In *National Society for the Study of Education. Forty-second Yearbook, Pt. II: The Library in General Education*. 1943, p.253. (Distributed by the Department of Education, Univ. of Chicago.)

The importance of both these considerations is obvious. Proximity to traffic arteries means less running about on the part of pupils coming to or leaving the library, and so does nearness to study areas. The latter also contributes to the use of library resources during periods of study and makes possible the use of study halls as overflow reading space or their absorption into the library in case expansion of the library proper makes such a course desirable.

Other students of planning emphasize the importance of proximity to allied activities such as the audio-visual department if such a department is separately maintained. Minster,⁵ taking note of certain practical and psychological considerations, favors "street level, near the main entrance in the section with the school offices" as being convenient for the return of books by pupils arriving in haste at the building, for instructors who need not go out of their way to consult library materials (every teacher visits the office at some time during the day), for the delivery of mail and books, and because this location is in itself an invitation to pupils and teachers to drop in as they leave.

Light is an important factor. In spite of impressive improvements in artificial illumination, the school library should have the best of natural light. What "the best" is should be decided in relation to climate and atmospheric conditions. In the temperate zone plenty of north light is favored, though atmospheric conditions alter cases. A southern exposure entailing heat from the sun's rays and constant adjustment of shades or blinds is usually undesirable, though there are cases where a south breeze in warm weather and abundant sunshine in winter may be valuable assets.

In an elementary school, proximity to upper-grade classroom and activity centers is to be sought rather than nearness to primary rooms from which attendance is less frequent. In cases where the library serves the adult public as well as the school, or is open to children and young people during the summer, immediate access from the street is so imperative as to be a deciding factor. In a private school the library often occupies a separate building, the location of which on the campus should embody many of the requirements set forth for the library within a school building; especially, proximity to main arteries of campus traffic and to recitation centers.

With so many factors to be considered, it is obviously impossible to develop a rigid formula for the location of the library suite except to say

⁵ Minster, Maud. *Practical School Library Organization and Integration*. The author, Altoona, Pennsylvania, 1941, p.40.

that as far as possible it should be planned as a unit with rooms auxiliary to the main reading room clustered about that room or immediately accessible and not scattered about.

The library should not be located in an out-of-the-way wing; at the end of a long, narrow corridor; at the top of a three-story building where, even with the aid of elevators or ramps, the location imposes a handicap on attendance; close to ear-splitting band or orchestra rooms or a noisy gymnasium; or between staircases or rooms equipped with extensive plumbing to move either of which is both infeasible and expensive in case of library growth.

Happily, in the school of the future it may be easier to avoid pitfalls and secure favorable locations. In the over-all arrangement of school buildings architects look forward to many departures from balanced or factory-type structures. Lower, multi-wing, irregular buildings offer attractive spaces and abundance of daylight. The relegation of noisy or odoriferous departments to remote corners or wings removes sensual distractions. Deliverance from the necessity of utilizing the conventionally long, narrow spaces allotted to the prewar reading center augurs well for more functionally satisfactory locations and layouts.

IV. ROOMS AND LAYOUT

1. *Layout.* Since the library is one division of the school plant, its dimensions are necessarily conditioned by whatever is accepted practice in school architecture. For that reason it is well to remember that in most modern school buildings "a unit of measurement is taken as a constant, and the entire building is developed in terms of this unit and multiples thereof." Such units are apt to be one-half or one-third classroom size, each being complete in itself with relation to heating and ventilating. Where a library is to be introduced into an old or a conventionally planned building, this often means that there is available a space some 23 feet or so in width, possible of extension lengthwise in units of 10, 15 or 18 feet. Greater width has been considered undesirable because in the general layout of the building natural light came into rooms from one side only and fixed the width of the room at twice the distance from floor to window tops. (Figure 1)

But if in planning the building the library is taken into consideration from the outset, it is possible to provide space that is *not* long and narrow. For example, it may be placed in a wing, the entire width of which is avail-

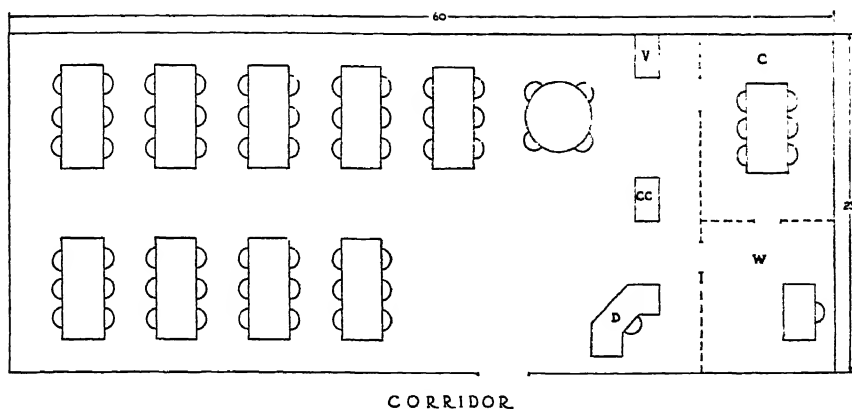


FIG. 1

Library with floor space equivalent to two classrooms. Aisles less than standard width, but suffice for small room. C—Conference room; CC—Card catalog; D—Librarian's desk; V—Vertical file; W—Workroom. Dotted lines indicate glazed partitions.

able. This is excellent, since it not only provides desirable width but allows lighting from three sides. In a triangular building, a butterfly type library (Figure 2) may be used. Closely related is corner space in a rectangular building.

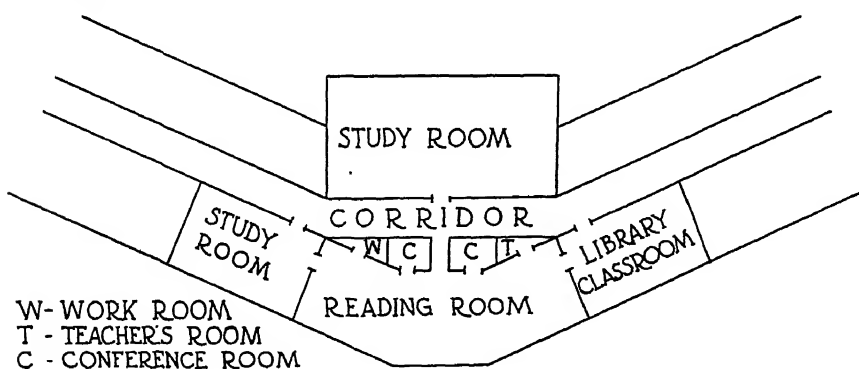


FIG. 2

Another variation from standard form is an irregular room made possible by an offset in the lengthwise wall (Figure 3). It is obvious that all of these layouts provide natural light, easy supervision, working quarters for librarian and student groups, and opportunity for expansion.

2. **Entrances and exits.** In the small library, a single doorway should lead from reading room into hall or corridor. The larger reading room requires additional doorways but keeps them to a minimum because they

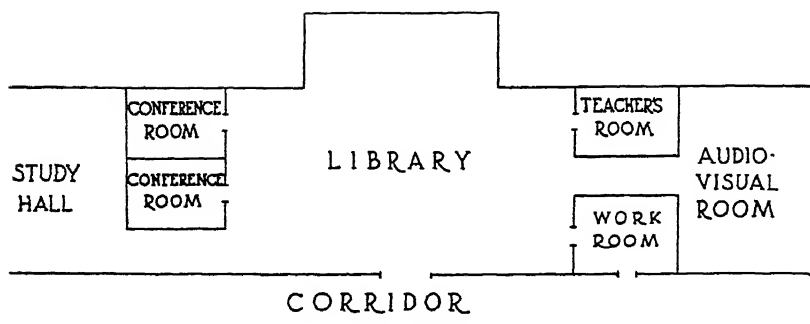


FIG. 3

increase the difficulty of supervision. Incoming pupils are ordinarily expected to remain for a full period, and the presence of several exits offers too tempting an opportunity to "cut" or to slip out with unrecorded books.

The most common exceptions to the one-door limitation occur: (a) where the library reading room adjoins the study hall, in which case there should be, in addition to a corridor exit, direct access to the study hall through a full length swinging door or a Dutch door (one cut in half horizontally) so disposed that books may be checked in or out above the closed lower half; and (b) where the reading room is so large that ingress and egress, both adjacent to librarians' desks, are provided for separately to avoid congestion.

Another exception occurs where the school library serves the adult public or operates as a children's or young people's library during vacation periods. Here access from the street as well as from the school building is imperative. It should be by way of a well-lighted vestibule from which separate toilets for adult use, and conveniences for disposing of wraps are available. To prevent access to the school building proper when school is not in session, folding iron gates may be installed across adjacent corridors.

For pupil access from within the building, swinging doors provided with stops are desirable in any library. Fire regulations demand that they swing out. Locks which cannot be manipulated by an ordinary passkey should be installed.

3. Rooms: dimensions and seating capacity. Every school library, no matter how small, should have an open-shelf reading space and a librarian's workroom or work closet. Beyond this, all depends on size and type of school and demands for service. While a reading alcove or a library corner in a classroom may be all that is feasible in small elementary schools under

existing conditions, there is a growing demand in all schools for a separate, fully equipped suite of rooms composed of a reading room, conference (group work) rooms for pupils and one for teachers, a listening and projection room, a library classroom, a librarian's workroom, and an office—or combinations of these rooms. When the school is small, combinations are decidedly in order, i.e., librarian's workroom and office, workroom and conference room, projection and classroom, etc. Combining library and study hall is also a possibility in both large and small schools, but current literature indicates that the combination is not as popular in the large school as formerly.

The reading room.—Formulas for space and seating capacity in the library of the future⁶ were suggested at the beginning of this chapter. However, in making the final decision on seating capacity in any individual school, one fact to be borne in mind is the necessity of providing seats somewhere outside of class and activity rooms for all pupils who may be free at any particular period as well as for the general public in case the library is open during school hours for community use. In proportion as study space outside the library is ample or adjacent, seating capacity within it may be diminished; in proportion as other facilities are inadequate, the library may have to take care of the overflow.

Because good library service is highly individual, physical accommodation of too large a number of readers and reference workers in a single room may be undesirable. Accordingly, the American Association of School Librarians' Committee suggests dividing the reading area into separate rooms according to enrollment as follows:

Enrollment	Anticipated minimum number of readers per class period	Number of reading rooms
1000	100	1
1500	150	2
2000	200	2

If the library is used as a study area, the number of reading rooms should be 2, 3, 3.⁷

⁶ Figures on seating capacity appearing in state standards prior to 1943 are summarized in Spain, F. L. "The Application of School Library Standards." In National Society for the Study of Education. *Forty-second Yearbook, Pt. II: The Library in General Education*. 1943, p.282.

⁷ American Library Association. American Association of School Librarians Committee on Planning School Library Quarters, *op. cit.*, p.2.

Where reading space is thus divided, it is desirable to group the separate rooms about a common center devoted to circulation, general reference, administration and other staff activities and thus save unnecessary duplication of books, work quarters and staff. In an old building where the library must be expanded this is not always possible and added reading rooms have been located adjacent to areas devoted to special subjects such as social science or literature. Where such separation occurs, the necessity of providing each unit with work and storage space should not be overlooked.

In estimating seating capacity, another factor to be considered is the nature of the school program. If pupils are detained outside the library proper throughout the better part of the day under some plan of directed study, the capacity of the central reading room need not be as great as when they come and go with more freedom. But educational programs are subject to change. Consequently, whatever the original space allotment, the reading room should be laid out with an eye to flexibility and particularly to expansion through the annexation of adjoining classroom or study areas. Space for the reading center should never be bounded by walls that cannot be removed or opened up, or by partitions or other architectural features too expensive to change.

In the past, seating capacity and space estimates made by some school architects, or emanating from conservative school sources have tended to be lower than those recommended here. This is doubtless because of the frequent necessity of fitting the library into an old building where space was at a premium, or of failure to foresee the full round of library services. Future planning should not be based on such conservative figures.

The workroom.—Second in importance only to the reading room is work space for the staff, and the storage facilities incidental to such work. To avoid unnecessary steps, this space should be as close as possible to the main reading room desk. The workroom may be small if well planned and provided with plenty of shelves, enclosed cupboards, and a locker. Floor space of 120 square feet or so should be adequate for a work table, a typewriter table and chair, two or three other chairs, and storage for working tools and books awaiting processing or repairs. Larger estimates probably envisage use of the room for the storage of magazines, duplicates, etc.

Where there is more than one reading room, each should be provided with work and storage space. The possibility of utilizing an adjoining conference room as supplementary work space for occasional groups of pupil assistants and for storage should be kept in mind.



A small library makes adequate provision for displaying magazines and newspapers

A basement becomes an attractive library for a rural community





Small furniture for small children makes an inviting reading corner

Informal furniture encourages leisure reading



The workroom table, constructed with a drawer, should have a washable top and be so placed as to allow at least two persons to work at it simultaneously. Locks on some cupboards segregate books being processed or awaiting repairs or binding. Running water is essential since the staff frequently works with paste and soiled books; and, in the elementary school, children may sometimes need an invitation to wash their hands. A basin will do, but a small sink and drain board are better. A mirror above adds to the librarian's equanimity, and a locker for work aprons and wraps is most desirable.

For the storage of paste, mending materials, and other clutter, a unit with cupboards above and below a sink set against the wall is suggested.⁸ All other available wall space is utilized for shelving. If designed for the storage of periodicals shelving should be 12 inches deep. Dimensions of shelving for the temporary storage of books are ordinarily standard except that the height may be increased if space is at a premium and a small step-stool or ladder provided. An electrical outlet at table height and convenient to the work table is recommended. It will be useful in marking books with an electric stylus. A six-drawer file on a table base is recommended as a repository for order cards and other records used by the staff. Trays should be of standard catalog size. If the file houses the shelf list, more than six trays may be needed.

To facilitate supervision of the reading room, the workroom should be separated from it by a partition that is glazed from some 3 feet above the floor up; and if there is an adjoining conference room, the partition between may also be glazed for the same reason. A door provided with a mail slot should lead into the corridor for convenience in the delivery of books, supplies and mail. (See Figure 4)

The conference room.—A conference or group activity room is needed in every library, and more than one if the school enrollment is large. Such a room should at the minimum be sufficiently wide to accommodate standard wall shelving and still house comfortably a table at least 3 by 5 feet in size and six chairs. The Committee before quoted recommends floor space of 120 square feet. The location should be such as to allow supervision from the librarian's desk or the workroom, or both. The dividing partitions should be glazed from about three feet above the floor, preferably with low shelving or cupboards beneath the glass. Unless workroom partitions extend to the ceiling or clever soundproofing is carried out group con-

⁸ Op. cit., p.7.

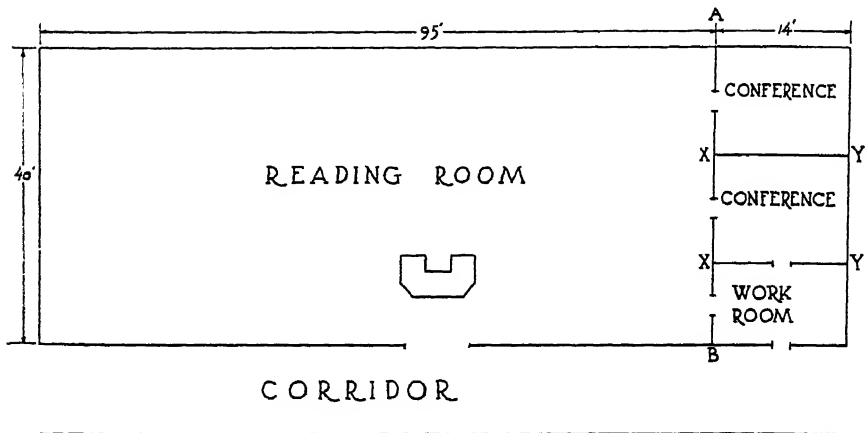


FIG. 4

- A—B. Fitted on reading room side with counter-height shelving with glazed partition above.
 X—Y. May be glazed.

versation will be disturbing to the occupants of the reading room. Careful provision for ventilation is essential and, frequently, artificial illumination, also. A small blackboard and a bulletin board are useful.

A suite of connecting conference rooms separated by roll-up partitions may on occasion be thrown together to serve as a library classroom and, if provided with dark curtains or opaque shades, as a projection room.

To control attendance, entrance to conference rooms should be through the reading room and not directly from the corridor. (Figures 1 and 4) Use of a conference room as an annex to the workroom is facilitated by a connecting door.

Where possible, one conference room should be designed for teacher use. Some librarians do not consider pupil conference rooms as essential in elementary as in high schools because, in the former, pupils tend to arrive in scheduled groups all members of which engage in similar activities and so need not be segregated. But the need for a teachers' conference room still exists and current emphasis upon small-group work supports the demand for adequate work space for pupils.

Office.—An office for the head librarian is desirable in the large school; it need not be large. In the small school it may be combined with the workroom by adding a desk. In any case, it should be adjacent to both reading room and workroom.

The audio-visual room or rooms.—What appeared in older plans as a library lecture room or classroom may in the modern school be metamorphosed into an audio-visual unit, or a room combining old and new uses. Planning soundproofing and acoustical qualities with the aid of a competent engineer is most desirable. A noiseless floor is as important as in other parts of the library, and opaque window shades or curtains are necessary. Draw curtains of denim operating on transverse rods are inexpensive, helpful for sound effects, and allow ventilation where necessary. A lectern for the speaker's notes is a convenience. A table shelf on which to place a phonograph should be installed approximately 12 inches above the average height of pupils when seated so that sound may be evenly distributed.

The findings of the American Association of School Librarians' special committee covering other points are essentially as follows:

The area for screening and listening may be divided in two; a space for screening and listening activities, and a space for housing (and in the large school, circulating) audio-visual materials. The first four items in the following checklist would then be placed in the first space.

Demonstration table or bench. Switches and outlets near the top, at one end. The table or bench should be placed the length of the room from the screen to be used for projection.

Turntable equipped with earphones. The earphones can be used for individual or small group listening when it is undesirable for recordings to be played back at ordinary volume.

Screen for projection.

Chairs for a class group; conference table, 3' × 5'.

Storage for films (if the school owns or plans to own its collection).

Adjustable library shelving can be fitted with steel racks to hold film cans of any size; or, tiers of wall cubicles can be provided in two sizes, 7½" × 7½" × 7¼", to hold two sizes of film cans.

Storage for filmstrips. Shallow (1¾") drawer cabinets are recommended.

Overall dimensions: 15" wide, 12" deep, 13" high. This cabinet will hold approximately 300 of the 1½" cans used for 35mm strips. Filmstrips can also be housed in cabinet trays designed for 2" × 2" slides, if certain dividers with which the trays are equipped are removed.

Storage for stereographs, 3¼" × 4" slides, and 2" × 2" slides. Cabinets with trays of appropriate size.

Storage for recordings. Cabinets fitted with shallow (1½") shelves, which should be provided in two depths, one to hold 12" recordings, and one to hold 16" transcriptions. Vertical housing of recordings is preferred by many; in this type of housing dividers should be spaced not more than 1½"

or 2" apart, so that the disks will stand upright. All cabinets housing recordings should be closed. Standard shelving adjusted to accommodate albums of records is sometimes used.

Storage for projectors, portable radios, playback machines, and other equipment. Cupboards of appropriate size.

Storage for maps and posters.⁹ A cabinet with four or five shallow (3") drawers, 36" wide, 25" deep, with a table base; or, a wall storage case, at least 25" × 36" × 6". The top of this wall case should not be more than waist height from the floor.¹⁰

Stack room.¹¹—Some plans call for a stack, or combined stack and storage room adjoining the reading center. If the library is operated as a full-fledged materials center such a room will be necessary. It will take the place of the traditional "book room," its stacks accommodating heavily duplicated titles, its storage facilities utilized for other materials of learning including audio-visual items if there is no special audio-visual room. Except in unusual circumstances it should not house general reading and reference materials. To the greatest possible extent, these should be displayed on wall shelving in the reading room where they present a constant invitation to explore.

V. INTERIORS

1. Walls. Long before the architect's drawings have assumed final form, provision of space for wall shelving should be carefully checked. An area otherwise acceptable for reading room purposes can easily be ruined in advance through poor choice of locations for heating fixtures, ventilators, telephone outlets and windows. Wainscoting and baseboards installed in advance of shelving are other dismaying features since they prevent placing shelving in direct contact with walls. To avoid catastrophes, specifications should be drawn up early. As an example of points to be covered take the following:

All possible surface downward from a point—feet above the floor shall be utilized for shelving. Heating fixtures shall be so located as to sacrifice a minimum of wall shelving. If thermostats, electric outlets and switches must be located on the wall they shall wherever possible be placed close to door or window trim in order not to break up space available for shelving. If it is

⁹ For other ideas for the storage of these items, especially in the small school or where space is at a premium, see index under heading *Maps*.

¹⁰ *Op. cit.*, p.7-8.

¹¹ For definition of "stack," see *SHELVING* in this chapter.

necessary for vertical pipes to pass through the rooms they shall be located in the corners where the wall shelving allows space for them. Chair rails, wainscoting, and baseboards shall be omitted, allowing the shelving to be placed securely against the wall. Plastering shall extend to the floor, any space between ends of book shelving and door trim being fitted with baseboards after shelving is in place. Plastering to the height of shelving shall be smooth to avoid rough contact with books.¹²

Wall finish and decoration are influenced by climate, exposure, and woodwork, but dark colors should be avoided and unduly bright tints also, except as possible backgrounds for shelving. Library books in themselves furnish color and cheer. Ceilings are of cream or ivory to reflect light, while restful pastel shades in buff, lichen gray, or pale green (the last for sunny rooms) are favorites for walls. Dull surface materials or flat or matte paints should be used.

Acoustical tiles or perforated materials may be used for sound absorption. Some objections to the latter are that they catch dust and carbon, lose their acoustical values when clogged with dust or painted, and do not reflect light as well as smoother surfaces. In the last analysis these are problems requiring the advice of competent engineers. But air washers lessen the problem of carbon deposits and anything which tends to cut down noise deserves friendly attention. Books and window hangings help and the latter add a touch of graciousness besides; but both may well be supplemented by other devices for soundproofing.

2. Woodwork. Hard woods are more desirable than soft woods for interior finish because they are more durable and better suited to withstand the wear and tear of constant school use. Oak is a favorite, with maple probably next. One advantage in these woods is that they are standard for the best types of equipment and so facilitate the matching of finish with furniture. Considering that libraries need additional equipment as they expand, matching is important from an economy angle, because while it is always possible to have standard equipment made to order in whatever wood and finish desired, it is expensive.

Dark finishes are usually avoided because they reveal scratches and dust annoyingly, absorb rather than reflect light, and may give an appearance of formal elegance rather than a cheerful, homelike interior. This last is sometimes enhanced, especially in smaller or elementary libraries, through

¹² Adapted from prewar statements of the American Library Association and the Los Angeles City School Librarian's Association. Postwar specifications may exhibit considerable change, but should be equally explicit.

the judicious use of dull-finish waterproof paint or enamel instead of more conventional natural wood finishes. Examples: warm french gray for casings, shelving, tables, etc., with shelf edges and other trim in green; chinese red on the inside, or cavity, of shelving as a bright background for books; linoleum table tops in soft, warm tones to harmonize with other colorful accents in an otherwise drab room.

Whatever the nature of the finish, it should be dull rather than shiny, for annoying glare is consistently to be avoided. A criticism sometimes made of paint is that it does not wear as well as stained or natural finish.

3. **Floor.** The freedom of movement essential to satisfactory library work, plus the necessity for quiet, points clearly to a noiseless floor covering for the reading room, and for other rooms too if possible. Prewar suggestions for floor coverings of rubber tile, cork tile, linotile and battleship linoleum may have to be revised as newer materials come on the market, though the points to be considered remain the same: the daily care required, ease in making repairs, durability, service, and cost. Battleship linoleum has had wide use, though some much prefer linotile because, being made in small sheets or tiles differing in color, it obscures trifling irregularities in flooring; also, sections may be taken up separately for repairs or the installation of electric floor outlets.¹³ Any covering exhibiting sharply contrasting checkerboard squares may have decorative values in a very large room, but may be hard on the eyes. Whatever the material used, colors should harmonize with finish of room and furniture.

4. **Decoration.** Possible decorative features for the library, other than books, which are themselves highly decorative when displayed on open shelves, include pictures, hangings, sculpture, pottery, paneling, fireplaces, murals, friezes, posters, plants, and flowers.

This is not the place to enlarge upon the principles of interior decoration which govern pleasing effects. Following these principles requires careful consideration of balance, color harmony, unity, fitness, and good taste as well as utilitarian objectives.¹⁴

In connection with the last it may be pointed out that a library may be

¹³ Power, E. L. *Work with Children in Public Libraries*. A.L.A., 1943, p.135-36. The nature, installation, care, and wearing qualities of all types of library floor covering are more fully discussed in Palister, C. D. *Floors and Floor Coverings*. A.L.A., 1939.

¹⁴ Mosier, E. A. "Decoration of the School Library." *New York Libraries* 14:198-202, May 1935. A summary of decorative principles applied to the school library. Should be read by every school librarian.

Power, E. L., *op. cit.*, p.145-46 provides useful hints on rooms frequented by young children.

a thing of beauty but most certainly not a joy forever when there comes unhappy realization of shelf space lost because of the interposition of paneled surfaces, of shelves extending beyond reaching height, of a fireplace that will never see a fire, of murals so striking that they make the display of simpler items such as posters and pupil handiwork look cheap.

A library is not a showplace, but a place to be lived in, having "the friendly atmosphere and mellow character which beckon to the passing student or tug at the coat tails of the boy who must be away to his next class."¹⁵ Graciousness, pleasing color, flexibility and emotional appeal are the essentials. Simplicity is the keynote. Lessons may be drawn from the modern show window displaying a few good items frequently changed rather than a miscellaneous assortment of plants, pictures, and bric-a-brac.

For publicity purposes, the library must have signs and posters, must maintain bulletin boards and display exhibits, all decorative features. If the librarian is a creative artist she is lucky. But if not, she is fortunate in being associated with those who are. From the hands of talented students beautiful and appropriate posters produced under the supervision of an art teacher may usually be had for the asking. The lettering of signs may be done by boys in mechanical drawing classes. Beautifully illustrated literary and historical maps may be purchased. Large printed Book Week posters may be purchased at slight cost from the Children's Book Council; well-printed and attractively illustrated library posters may be bought from library supply firms. If there is a local art museum, paintings and other art objects may be borrowed from time to time, frequent change adding to interest and educational value.

Where wall shelving is not well filled or is too high, some libraries have fitted a line of bulletin boards (they may be hinged at the top to provide storage space behind) or horizontal strips of tackboard over upper shelves just below the cornice, using the surface for pupil-made murals or other decorative features—but not for publicity displays, which should always be at eye level.

VI. HEAT, VENTILATION, LIGHTING, ETC.

1. **Miscellaneous suggestions.** The technical considerations of heating, ventilation and lighting, are matters for engineers, but in the choice and location of fixtures the librarian can make useful suggestions.

¹⁵ Duff, J. C. "The Librarian and the Junior High School." *Library Journal* 53:402, May 1, 1928.

Heat is injurious to books and for that reason all radiators, hot-air outlets and steam pipes must be as far removed from shelving as possible. Asbestos may be used to mitigate the unfortunate effects of heat, but it is far better to keep books and heating equipment well separated. All apparatus, including thermostats, should be located to conserve shelf space.

In modern systems of ventilation, air vents and intakes must be strategically placed, but here again the engineer should be aware of how valuable wall space is. All parts of the library suite should be well ventilated, preferably without the necessity of opening windows.

Running water has been mentioned as a necessity for the workroom, and the undesirability of placing plumbing fixtures within or adjacent to walls which may have to be removed to allow library expansion has also been emphasized. Little else need be added since the exposed plumbing which in older buildings interfered with shelving is no longer good architecture.

Outlets for the public address system will doubtless be provided in the library as well as facilities for listening to outside programs.

2. **Lighting.** A sufficient volume of light must be cast on walls and tables to make reading pleasant, and careful attention must be given to fixtures from the point of view of appearance.¹⁶ The influence of wall finish and woodwork on proper lighting has already been stated.

The possibilities in tiles, blocks or bricks made of glass should be studied. When used as outside walls they admit quantities of soft, diffused light and eliminate dust and din. Modern methods of construction open other possibilities. Carrying building weight now on steel columns of small size rather than on the earlier masonry piers permits window area to be substantially enlarged, thus encouraging the greater depth in rectangular reading rooms which is desirable. It also makes more feasible the placing of windows above shelving instead of where they occupy precious wall space. Naturally, to avoid a shut-in appearance and to add charm, some low windows will be installed. The French door type which may be desirable in a warm climate for ventilating purposes as well as for aesthetic reasons will not be so satisfactory where the weather is cold since drafty and often hard to manage.

After suggesting that the top of window glass be as near the ceiling as possible, the American Association of School Librarians' planning committee suggests the following formula for glass area: "Not less than 25 per

¹⁶ Tinker, M. A. "Lighting." *Nations Schools* 27:47, May 1941. An admirable brief summary of essentials. Written for the layman.

cent of the floor area for glass starting 3 feet above the floor, and 20 per cent for glass starting 4 feet above the floor.”¹⁷

Venetian blinds and roller shades both have their advocates. Where shades are chosen, “two maintained on separate rollers should be placed near the center of the window, one operating upward and the other downward.” Window drapes are feasible where the atmosphere is not saturated with smoke or where adequate cleaning equipment is available in the building. They add a touch of graciousness and welcome color.

According to Tinker,¹⁸ the intensity and distribution of light is probably more important than its color. He reports that 10 to 15 foot-candles at the reading surface furnish a satisfactory margin above the critical level for illumination, but adds that one table with brighter illumination may be provided for the occasional pupil with defective eyesight.

Fully indirect lighting is desirable, and fluorescent lights are coming into favor. If ceilings and walls are light colored and clean, porcelain globes or inverted shades that hang below the ceiling but above the field of vision of those working at tables may be substituted. Wiring should be such that lamps farthest from windows can be turned on first. If possible switches should be placed near the main desk.

Table lights are largely unnecessary and undesirable in a public school, but are found in private schools where the reading room is more consistently used at night and where table lamps add coziness. Simple straight line ceiling fixtures are installed in the public school; elaborate chandeliers are avoided for they are dust catchers and out of accord with the home-like atmosphere which should prevail.

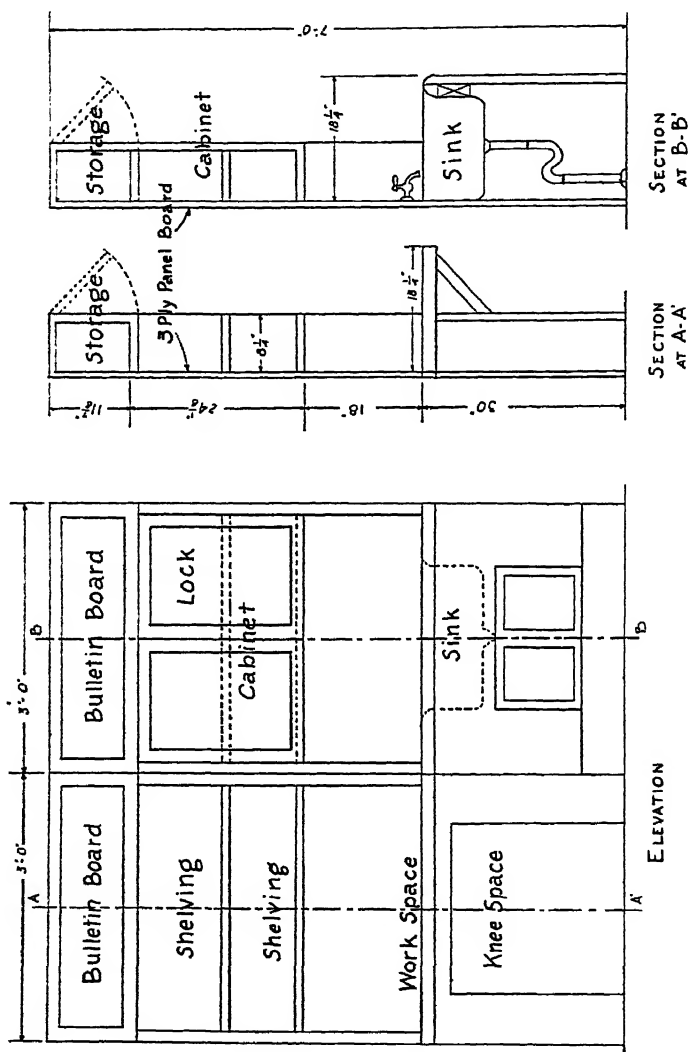
VII. THE SMALL OR MAKESHIFT LIBRARY

So far attention has been devoted to planning the new library on the assumption that adequate space and funds were available to do what was needed. Such are not always the conditions. How to recondition an old room or suite of rooms for library purposes or to outfit an alcove or a library corner in a one-room rural school is worth considering.

1. **Remodeling.** Basement rooms (illus. p.210), cloak rooms, a section of the auditorium or its stage and, most frequently of all, classrooms, have been successfully converted into usable and attractive libraries. One elementary school installed bookshelves in a hallway, provided the librarian

¹⁷ Op. cit., p.4.

¹⁸ Op. cit.



WORK UNIT
for a one classroom-size library
(Tennessee State Department of Education
Division of Schoolhouse Planning)

with a capacious book truck made from a cafeteria dish-wagon, and instituted library hours in classrooms with librarian and truck arriving like the peripatetic librarian in a hospital.

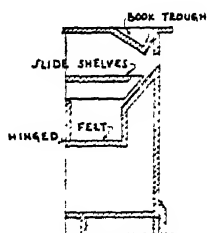
It is never wise to be supercilious concerning makeshifts. Out of them often grow enlarged service, sometimes finer because rooted in necessitous circumstances. Nevertheless, remodeling is a costly process. Blackboard removal is tedious and expensive; doorways are in the wrong places; linoleum is an extravagance on an old floor; vents are wrongly placed. Altogether, it is far better to build new quarters. But here are points for consideration if and when school quarters must be adapted for library purposes.

The first thing to consider is whether quarters are to be temporary or permanent. If the former, it is obviously wise to spend as little money as possible on built-in features, and to purchase instead standard sectional shelving and files which may be used later in a new location. If there are in the building comfortable chairs and usable tables which a fresh coat of paint or varnish will put in condition, they should be requisitioned. If the reconditioned room is to house the library permanently, specifications already given for the wholly new library should be followed as far as possible. Experience has shown, however, that it is often best to leave blackboards in place, painting them or covering them with burlap or wall-board, after removing projecting chalk rails. Another method is to place shelving with full board backs against blackboards.

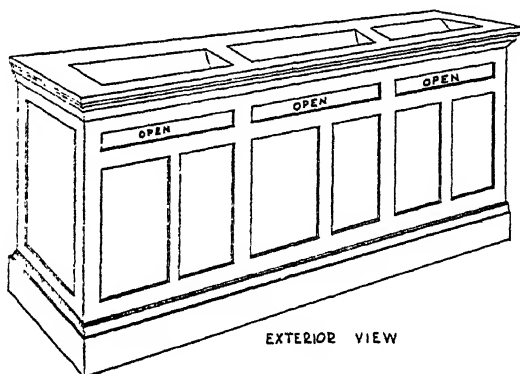
Interesting substitutes for a workroom have been devised. Perhaps the best is composed of several sections of double-faced stack shelving so arranged in a corner of the reading room as to enclose two sides of a rectangle. Somewhere space is left for an entrance which is wisely barred by a gate or door. Conference rooms may be provided in the same way, the chief difficulties being lack of supervision and noise from conversation. Plate I shows a work unit for installation in the one-classroom size library.

A possible layout for two connecting classrooms has been indicated (Figure 1). In such situations, aisles must nearly always be less than standard width and table dimensions must be decided upon with reference to room width.

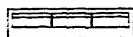
2. **The library in the small school.** Much has been written about the adaptation of existing building space for library purposes in small schools, especially in the elementary grades, and new ideas for such adaptations may frequently be found in current educational periodicals. But the at-



SECTION

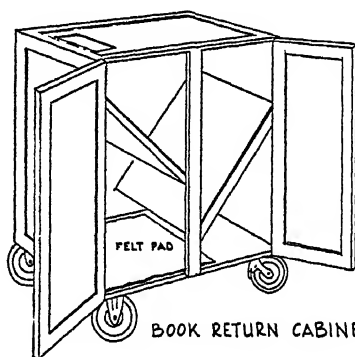


EXTERIOR VIEW

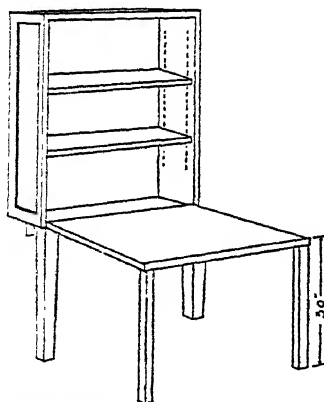


PLAN

REAR COUNTER FOR CHARGING DESK

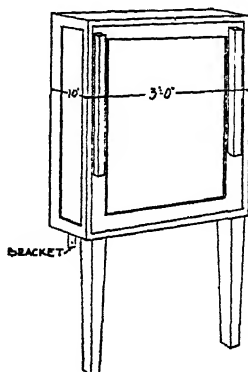


BOOK RETURN CABINET



WHEN OPEN

RURAL SCHOOL BOOK CABINET



WHEN CLOSED

tractive possibilities in makeshifts should never be allowed to put the convenient, well-planned library out of the picture. Nor is it well to be too optimistic about what volunteers can supply in the way of permanent equipment.

Often an alcove or "library corner" is all that can immediately be managed. Perhaps an anteroom or a cloakroom can be done over, and fitted with homemade or pupil-made tables, shelves and seats. Plate II, p.222 offers a suggestion for a rural school book cabinet and table combined. Here a wooden door that locks drops to form a table and reveals a three-shelf bookcase. With some simple device such as this, or a gaily painted table and chairs, a bulletin board, a painted packing box for use as a vertical file, and a two- or three-drawer catalog unit—presto! the little school has its library—a place of privilege and delight with even this slight equipment.

In the rural school with several rooms, a separate library room is needed so that books may be available to all. An alcove off the principal's office may serve, but a room of approximately classroom size is better. In some schools it adjoins the high school study hall from which it is separated only by archways or low book shelves and so may be supervised from the study hall when the part-time librarian is not on duty.

The important thing in all cases is to provide for shelving, magazine display, and supervision and not to shut reading materials up in a place where pupils cannot get at them.

VIII. THE STUDY HALL LIBRARY

Where library and study center are one, the entire space should be made to look as much as possible like a library. In the case of a library alcove separated from space devoted to study by open archways or a glazed partition, counter height shelving or cupboards should be installed below the partition and tables and chairs provided in contrast with the school-room desks outside in sufficient numbers to take care of pupils engaged in reference work or receiving special guidance from the librarian. There are excellent reasons for such a special alcove or reference center. It safeguards library books too readily lost in the study hall proper, and it allows movement and quiet conversation without annoyance to those engaged in textbook study. It preserves library atmosphere and arrangement while economizing on personnel. It appears to be an ideal solution of the study hall-library problem in the small school.

IX. EQUIPMENT

1. "Standard" and "unit" equipment.

Standard equipment.—After long years of experimentation, libraries have come to very general agreement about certain items of equipment, i.e., the length and depth of shelves (3 feet by 8 inches), or the centimeter dimensions of catalog trays. Shelves sag if longer, and most books slide too far back if depth exceeds 8 inches. Since the printed cards used in catalogs are cut to centimeter measurements, trays must be accurately constructed to correspond. As a consequence, these items of equipment have been standardized. It is well to purchase them from firms specializing in their manufacture in order to insure correct dimensions as well as excellence of construction, and well seasoned wood that will not warp. When purchased from general office supply houses not specializing in library equipment, or when built by local cabinetmakers, the chances for error are great unless unusual care is taken with specifications. Samples of materials and construction should be required with the bids from such sources.

But not all furniture need be standard. While shelves and catalog trays should be standard, tables and chairs need not be. Given durability, good workmanship, and a sufficient amount of space per pupil, tables may be round, medium long, or short, topped with linoleum or hardwood according to fitness and space, and variously designed. The day of complete uniformity in tables is past.

Unit equipment.—Unit equipment is that which is built in standardized sections easily fitted together. Starting with a few sections of shelving, a few catalog trays, and the front section of a desk, new units can be added as growth demands. Another advantage of unit equipment is the possibility of interchanging or combining units of various kinds: substituting a magazine unit for a unit of shelving, or combining vertical files with a catalog unit. Examples of the units available are shown in illustrated catalogs of library equipment firms.

2. Metal vs. wood. Most items of equipment may be had in steel; but after considerable experimentation, libraries seem, except where workroom cupboards, lockers, etc., are concerned, to have decided rather generally on wood as being less noisy, more easily moved, and more homelike. It is as yet too early to predict what new types of furniture may come on the postwar market. Perhaps both wood and metal may disappear in favor of plastic.

3. **Built-in vs. movable.** Many items of library equipment may be either built-in or movable, depending on the general plan, on permanence of installation, cost, and the grasp of local architects, contractors and cabinet-makers of the requirements of library service.

The equipment most frequently built in is shelving. Sunk into the wall, it has the appearance of belonging and becomes a pleasing architectural feature. But here aesthetics and utility may come into conflict. The upper line of shelving, when all shelves are within reach, may be too low to suit the demands of aesthetics, and so the architect tends to run shelving higher. A solution may be found in the use of decorative features above the shelves such as a frieze or horizontal paneling. One architect contrived a series of wood lunettes corresponding to the arched tops of the windows opposite.

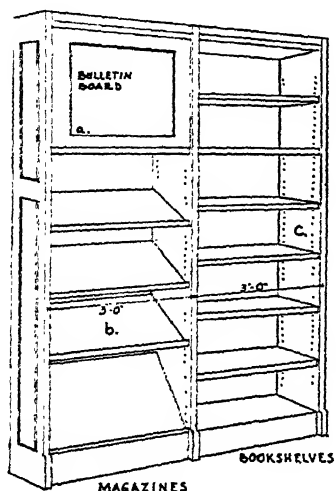
Certain disadvantages in the local construction of shelving and catalog files have been mentioned. Others may eventuate. Fixtures for adjusting the shelves may be improperly installed, or adjustability entirely overlooked. Catalog trays are not provided with the standard fittings required for safe manipulation such as rods and locks for keeping cards in place. In short, specifications for standard shelving and files are not carefully followed, making expansion of shelf and filing facilities difficult.

When it comes to other items of equipment the case for building them in is much stronger. Cupboards, bulletin boards, ledges under windows and the like often look better and fit better when tailored to suit special architectural features or spaces not useful for shelving.

4. **Enclosed storage.** Enclosed storage needs a special word since it is a fault of many plans that they do not provide nearly enough.

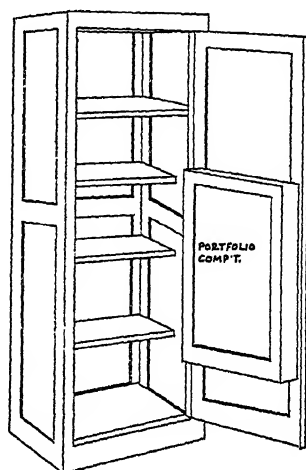
In addition to the facilities for storage provided in the workroom and the audio-visual center there should be available in the reading room, preferably close to or a part of the magazine display rack, cupboards for the storage of unbound issues for the current year since these are in frequent demand and should be accessible without unnecessary running back and forth. A depth of 12 inches is required and sliding doors are desirable.

Storage of large wall charts and posters is a challenge to ingenuity. Space behind paneling in an entrance lobby or adjacent corridor has been fitted for the vertical storage of such materials; a rack for the same purpose may be attached to the inside of a cupboard door (Plate III, p.226); a bin for vertical storage may be provided in workroom or audio-visual room. Space-consuming and expensive cabinets for horizontal filing may



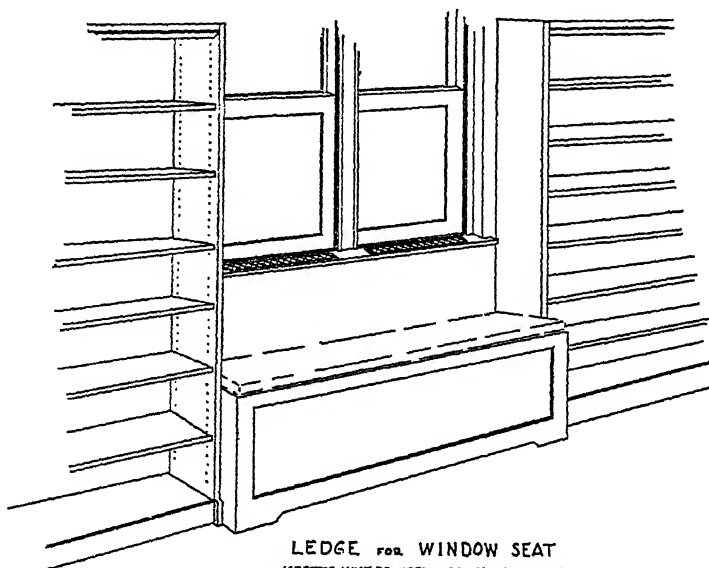
UNIT WOOD SHELVING

a. BULLETIN BOARD MAY BE HINGED TO ALLOW STORAGE
 b. SHELVES TILTED TO FORM MAGAZINE BACK
 c. NOTE ADJUSTABLE SHELVING



SUPPLY CUPBOARD

NOTE TOP SHELF FULL DEPTH OTHERS SHALLOW



LEDGE FOR WINDOW SEAT
 ASBESTOS MUST BE USED AROUND RADIATOR

be unnecessary if advantage is taken of opportunities such as those mentioned. Others will suggest themselves.

5. **Bulletin boards.** Since plenty of "pin-up space" is indispensable for publicity and for convenience in posting lists, book jackets, exhibits, etc., small wall areas throughout the reading room, as well as one or two larger areas in good locations outside may be converted into bulletin boards through the application at eye level of rectangles of linoleum, beaverboard, or other suitable material framed in a simple molding. In an elementary school, a combination of two bulletin boards and a blackboard has been used, all three being the same size, with the blackboard in the middle offering opportunity for informal drawings supplementing materials displayed on the bulletin boards.

If shelf space is too precious to sacrifice in favor of pin-up space, movable bulletin boards may and should be resorted to. They may be constructed like screens; or a swinging arm device may be employed with charts, posters, etc. hanging suspended from the arms. The best book display racks have small bulletin boards attached.

6. **Ledges, counters, window seats, etc.** An architectural feature as attractive as it is useful may be developed by running a 12- to 14-inch ledge along the wall under and between windows and beneath partitions the upper portions of which are glazed. To be most useful, such ledges should be of a height to allow comfortable examination of a heavy book while the reader is standing—some 36 inches or so. Upon such a ledge the unabridged dictionary may be left permanently, sometimes with covers attached to the ledge to prevent removal. Greater depth of shelving being possible beneath the ledge than elsewhere, the space may be used to excellent advantage for the shelving of encyclopedias or bound magazines, both of which are advantageously consulted on the spot without removal to adjoining tables. Cupboards below the ledge are also possible.

Instead of a ledge, a few window seats may be constructed. They add to informality and are particularly appropriate in the elementary school library. (See Plate III, p.226)

Counters are similar to ledges in use, but are free standing, and usually provided with shelving on both sides. A sloping top adds to convenience in consulting large books.

7. **Magazine and newspaper racks.** Racks may be either built-in or movable, but designs are similar in both cases. For magazines, the display type is favored. It may follow in general construction the form shown in

Plate IV, p.232, the compartments of which are spaced vertically and of a depth to exhibit the upper portion of each magazine when inserted upright. Such racks may be built in, or purchased in units occupying space equivalent to a 3-foot section of shelving, the top area of the rack being devoted to a bulletin board with storage space behind. An even simpler form of display rack is made by slightly tilting a few shelves and attaching strips of molding across the lower edge to prevent periodicals from slipping off. (See Plate III, p.226).

A free-standing framework for the display of newspapers may be built or purchased, but simpler devices conserve floor space. One consists in boring a series of holes at an angle of about 45 degrees at intervals along a thick piece of wood. This "holder" is attached vertically to wall or casing, and into the holes are thrust the handles of newspaper rods (available from library supply firms) the papers hanging from them like flags. Another method is to hang the rods horizontally on hooks placed in the wall for that purpose, perhaps in a space between windows not adapted for shelving. There are several varieties of rods, some of wood and some of metal. They may be purchased separately from the frame. One library, dispensing with both rods and frame, simply staples each paper together down its folded margin. It is then placed on the current history table and when removed for filing still remains intact.

8. **Shelving.** Shelving is of two kinds: wall and stack. The wall type needs no explanation. Stack shelving may be defined as a series of bookcases, usually double faced, arranged in a separate room known as the stack room or in a section of the reading room for the compact storage of books.¹⁹ Ordinarily, as indicated in the discussion of stack rooms, the school library will have plenty of wall shelving and little stack shelving except where necessary for the storage of duplicates, supplementary texts and the like. Double-faced counter height shelving may be used instead to supplement wall shelving in the reading room. When so disposed as to form open alcoves sometimes fitted as browsing nooks, or to set off special reading centers fully visible from the librarian's desk, it gives an air of coziness and does not interfere in the least with supervision. It is greatly to be preferred to the older type of alcove bounded by seven-foot shelving. The latter almost without fail created a problem in discipline.

¹⁹ Adapted with slight change from American Library Association Committee on Library Terminology. *The A.L.A. Glossary of Library Terms*. The Association, 1943, p.132. Note the emphasis in this definition on storage.

SHELVING ²⁰*Dimensions*

Length of shelves.....	3 feet	
Depth of shelves		
Standard	8 inches	
For oversized books.....	10-12 inches	
For periodicals	12 inches	
Thickness (hardwood)	13/16-7/8 inches	
Height of case		
Base	4-8 inches	
Cornice	2-3 inches	
Total height for		
Elementary school	5-6 feet	
Junior school	5-6 feet	
Senior school	6-7 feet	
Space (in the clear) between		
shelves	10 inches	(This is an average. Adjustable feature cares for oversized books on lower shelves)

Capacity estimates

Number of books per shelf foot...	8
Total capacity — depends on	
size, type and organization of	
school. Recommended:	
Minimum....	5 books per pupil
Average.....	10 books per pupil
Exceptional school....	20 books per pupil

Special shelving

- Slanting shelves for picture books or display purposes
- Tilted bottom shelves, slanting downward toward back
- Tilted shelves for current magazines

All shelving should be open faced, devoid of unnecessary trim, and adjustable. Adjustability is secured: (a) through the use of special metal pins in holes bored in the uprights at intervals of one inch. In case threaded pins available from library supply firms are used, the under side of the shelf is grooved to receive them. (b) Through use of metal strips attached to the inner faces of the uprights. These strips are provided with

²⁰ The above table follows recommendations made in earlier editions of the present book and slightly revised in American Library Association Committees on Post-War Planning. *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow*, 1945, p.42. A table prepared by the American Association of School Librarians, *op. cit.*, p.6, shows slight variations.

transverse slits into which the shelves are hooked by means of metal catches attached to the shelf ends.

The segment of 3-foot shelving between two uprights is known as a section or unit. It is in such sections that standard shelving is supplied by library equipment firms. (See Plate III) Uprights between sections bear no facings since these interfere with the removal of books. Cornices are plain and narrow, and so constructed as not to cut off vertical space on the upper shelf. Wall shelving is built without wood backing unless necessary to protect books from heating apparatus, or to cut off some of the depth under a ledge.

The bases recommended for school library shelving are often higher than those used elsewhere because of the danger to books from the floor cleaning practices of schools. Marble or rubber tile bases may be beautiful and are not subject to injury from the janitor's mop. Another defense against the mop is a concave base with an overhang that deflects water downward. If shelving is built as low as it should be, a protruding base will not be needed for use as a step.

Tilting of the two lower shelves downward toward the back facilitates the reading of call numbers and the titles of books.

Some variations in shelving are: (a) for the elementary school, deep lower shelves for oversized books provided with fixed vertical supports at distances of some 4 or more inches; (Fifteen inches should be allowed between shelves in order to accommodate large volumes such as picture books); (b) in any school, tilted shelves for the display of picture books, magazines, or other eye-catching volumes; and (c) a section of shelving fitted with glass doors and a lock to care for valuable illustrated editions. The lock is not so much for security as to impress pupils with the value of the books and to make their use a special privilege.

9. Chairs and tables. Seating arrangements in the school library bear a close relationship to its educational efficiency. Not only must seats be comfortable and of suitable height, but they must be so placed as to allow complete supervision without loss of social atmosphere. This suggests chairs instead of school seats, and small tables instead of school desks. Informality is the keynote because it is the keynote of the library's contribution to education.

Of course there are dangers in informality, and a social atmosphere may become mere sociability. The big round table and story-hour benches of the elementary library are superseded in the upper grades by smaller

tables and conference rooms and may give way in the senior high school to occasional arm chairs or special reading desks accommodating one or two individuals and designed to provide the isolation which the serious student often desires and the mischievous one must sometimes have forced upon him. In a commendable ardor for socialization, librarians may have over-emphasized tables. It is possible to imagine an ideal high school library reading room outfitted half with individual reading desks and half with tables, adequate provision for small group activities being made through conference rooms. The question of economy in floor space is one to be considered, but that the reading desk is not necessarily wasteful of space was discovered a good many years ago.²¹

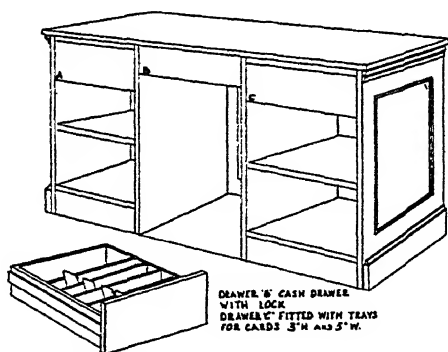
TABLES AND CHAIRS²²

Type of Library	Tables				Chairs to Match
	Height	Width	Length	Diameter (Round tables)	Height
Elementary library	24"-26"	30"-36"	5'-6' 6"	4'-5'	14", 16"
Junior high library	27"	ditto	ditto	4'	17"
Senior high library	29", 30"	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto

Tables.—Every library must of course have tables whether or not it provides reading desks. The dimensions recommended for table tops in the formulas given are not to be taken as absolute dogma. Length and shape may be conditioned by room dimensions and aesthetic considerations, though long narrow tables seating more than six are always to be avoided for disciplinary reasons as well as because they tend to present a stereotyped appearance. A width of 30 inches is contrary to long established

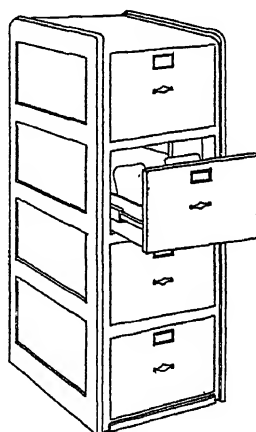
²¹ Henry, W. E. "Discipline and Furniture." *Public Libraries* 19:238-41, June 1914.

²² Figures follow the recommendations of the American Library Association Committees on Post-War Planning, *op. cit.*, p.42, and of the U.S. National Bureau of Standards. *School Tables*. The Bureau, 1943. (Simplified Practice Recommendation R191-43.)

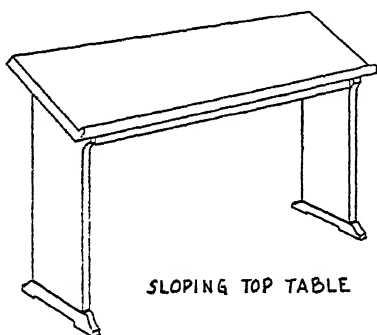


DRAWER 'A'

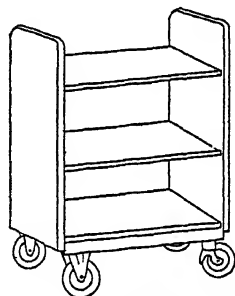
CHARGING DESK



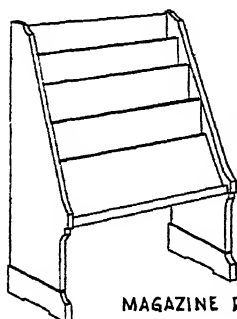
VERTICAL FILE



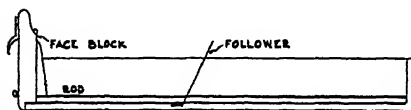
SLOPING TOP TABLE



BOOK TRUCK



MAGAZINE RACK



SECTION THRU CARD TRAY

practice in libraries and has possibilities in the high school of being both a health and a disciplinary hazard. On the other hand, it conforms to sizes recommended for use elsewhere in the school and may therefore represent economy through mass production.

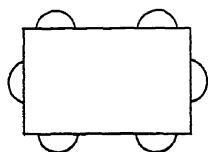


FIGURE A

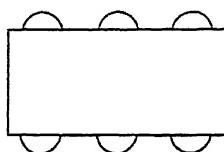


FIGURE B

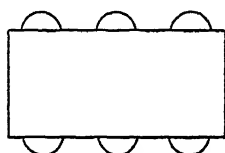
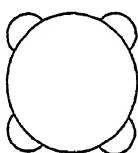
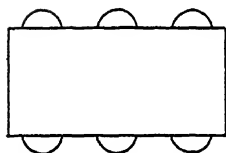


FIGURE C

The table 3 feet by 5 feet seating six (Fig. A, above) once found in nearly all libraries is now under fire because some pupils must face the light. One 3 feet by 6 feet 6 inches in size seats three on a side (Fig B) and provides the unobstructed aisles desirable in the hurly burly of period bell rushes in the large school. If the 3 feet by 6 feet 6 inches length is chosen, legs should be flush with corners, or table ends should be of pedestal type so as to provide adequate space for chair legs.

When floor space is at a premium, a combination of rectangular and round tables arranged the length of the room as in Fig. C may be an economy since the diagonal placing of chairs provides passageway. Round tables, or oval ones, the latter perhaps corresponding with curved lines elsewhere in the room, add charm and break the deadly monotony of rows of uniformly rectangular shapes extending the length of an equally rectangular room. A slant-top table with a bench before it is ideal for small elementary pupils busy with picture books. (See Plate IV, p.232).

Tables must be solidly constructed of well-seasoned wood with corners and edges rounded to prevent bruises. If properly built they will require neither deep aprons nor crossbars near the floor. Aprons interfere with pupils' knees, and crossbars are objectionable because they soon become scratched and unsightly and are a nuisance in floor cleaning.

Linoleum-topped tables are used with good effect. They are washable and, if properly finished, without glare. Where color is desired, they can be painted to provide it. They are not to be constructed by a novice since base, cement, and proper treatment of edges are all-important, as is a dull finish.

Double-topped tables for accommodating the school books and papers pupils bring with them have been experimented with but have little vogue. Another device is an elevated shelf set on standards the length of the table. This seldom looks well. A third suggestion has been to place a shelf or tray beneath the chair seat. This will work if pupils can be persuaded to sit on four legs of the chair instead of two! Textbook lockers just outside the library in which nonlibrary books must be deposited before entering have been installed in some schools partly with this same end in view. But there are difficulties. Deposit of books without checking does not work, and checking interferes with the speedy admission of pupils to the library. A by-result, sometimes welcomed, is cutting the attendance of pupils who wish merely to use the library as a study room. But the plan also cuts out the pupil who can finish his studying in thirty minutes and employ the remainder of the period in profitable browsing.

Chairs.—Desirable qualities in chairs are stoutness, plain, simple lines, and comfort; the last is secured through the saddle seat, properly curved back, and other devices now incorporated in chairs designed for growing individuals. Because of the extremely hard use library chairs get, excellent construction is very important. Undesirable qualities are spreading legs, arms, and ornateness. Legs should be fitted with gliders. If Windsor chairs are used at tables they should be specially designed to cut down their spread. It must always be remembered that attractive as these and other items of "period" equipment may be, janitorial labor is greatly increased by spindles, crossbars, and grooves.

Except for occasional variations introduced to relieve monotony or to promote coziness, chairs should be uniform in design though of varying heights if there is wide divergence in the ages of pupils in attendance. Window seats are sometimes introduced. A charming elementary room has a curved one flanked by picture books. It also provides several slant-topped tables, or "cathedral desks" which may be moved at will. Other libraries exhibit inglenooks. Stout settees of wood in such nooks or an occasional wicker or Windsor armchair placed in an angle of the wall are invitations to the high school pupil to read at leisure. One entire section of

the room may be furnished as a browsing nook with seating that is a far cry from the efficiency arrangement prevailing elsewhere—but not with luxurious overstuffed davenports and lounging chairs which are more likely to suggest sprawling than browsing.

The invitation of the library corner in the elementary classroom or the one-room school will be heightened by furniture that is “different,” perhaps brought from home and refinished in the school workshop. One elementary school exhibits low benches (8 inches to 10 inches high) painted on the edges in bright colors and fitted with cretonne-covered mats. These easily moved benches are designed especially for storytelling hours; but children use them at other times too.

10. Librarians’ desks and chairs.

Desks		Chairs	
Sitting height	30-30½ inches	Adjustable, swivel	18 inches up
Standing height	39 inches	“ “	24 inches up

Desks for the use of the staff vary so widely with the size of the library and the nature of the work done that details must be worked out by examination of catalogs and observation of desks actually in service.

In the small library, one desk serves for all purposes. Plate IV, p.232, shows a good design. Essentials are: drawers equipped with roller slides and removable trays to be used for charging purposes; a lock drawer which may be used for fines; pull-out shelves²³ for returned books. The teacher’s desk, large size with flat top, may be provided with a double wooden charging tray fitted with blocks to hold cards upright and so do service in place of a regulation charging desk. A small book truck or receiving shelves for returned books should stand beside the desk.

In the larger school the circulation desk is more spacious and more complicated, and if there are several librarians, individual desks for advisory service will be required in addition. Flat-topped teachers’ desks may be used if their finish and design are in harmony with other equipment.

Since the circulation desk is devoted to the quick exchange of books, it must be expertly designed. Essentials are a sunken section for charging trays, a cash drawer, slots to receive book cards, storage space for returned books. Desirables are a telephone shelf, plate glass to cover some portion of the top, and cupboard space. Sometimes shelf-list files are also installed.

²³ Shelves shown in illustration are adjustable instead of pull-out. The pull-out type is more convenient.

There are several types of circulation desk: the counter, the U-shape, the L-shape, and the wing shape. Any of these may be sectional, and of standing or sitting height, as shown in library equipment catalogs. The sectional desk has the great advantage of providing for growth. The abbreviated stature of children using the elementary library suggests a desk of sitting height; for the junior or senior high school the tendency is toward standing height with perhaps a sunken section of sitting height at the side. Special high chairs and foot rests must be provided if the desk is high. Toe space, made by recessing the baseboard 2 or 3 inches, is essential to comfortable work while standing.

A useful addition to the circulation desk which stands at some distance from the wall is counter height shelving placed slightly in the rear. This may be fitted with shelves for reserve books or it may be constructed as in Plate II, p.222, the slots (labeled "open") enabling large numbers of pupils to return books without service from the librarian and with no danger of the books being carried off before being discharged. A further convenience is the trough on top for the display of books that have been discharged. A second device is a receiving bin on wheels which may be placed in a corridor or open doorway. (Plate II, p.222) Provided with a slot on top and slides within, the bin is a safe and convenient receptacle for books returned by pupils hurrying to classrooms. The rush over, the bin is wheeled to the circulation desk where the books are discharged. Such a receptacle may be homemade.

11. **Filing cabinets.** Filing cabinets most commonly used are catalog, shelf-list, picture, and pamphlet, or combinations of two or more. They should be sectional, thus allowing for expansion and combination. A combination frequently found in smaller schools consists of a two-drawer vertical file for pamphlets and pictures with a small catalog unit of two to five trays on top. Larger combinations of this type are open to objection because of crowding. If children use the catalog as they should, they are constantly in the way of the vertical files.

The catalog case

Sectional or unit type—with table base if only a few trays are required
Trays·(See Plate IV)—5 inches by $3\frac{3}{8}$ inches by $15\frac{1}{2}$ inches

(Inside dimensions.
For 7.5 by 12.5 centimeter standard library size cards.)

Inside dimensions for catalog trays above should be followed exactly as to depth and width for use with standard catalog cards. The trays should be equipped with rods and locks for keeping cards in place, and with durable pulls and label holders. Such trays will hold 1100 medium weight cards each. Since it has been estimated that adequate cataloging for the school library requires five cards per title, approximately five trays will be needed for a library of one thousand titles. Additional trays will be required for growth.

The shelf-list case.—In the small library one or more trays of the catalog case may be used for the shelf list. In the larger library a separate case will be necessary.

Vertical files.—(See Plate IV. p.232)

Sectional, one or more units

Drawers (legal size)—10½ inches high, 15 inches wide, 24 inches deep (inside measurement)

Ball-bearing slides

Drawers of the dimensions indicated are suitable for pamphlets and for most pictures. Divided by an imaginary line or a real partition, each accommodates two parallel rows of pamphlets. If the school has many large pictures, other provision will have to be made for them. Ball bearing slides are necessary, since without them the heavily loaded trays are operated with great difficulty.

In a small school, a deep desk drawer, a packing box or a fruit crate has done service as a vertical file until something better could be had. It is advantageous when using such makeshifts to have the school carpenter insert transverse partitions of thin wood to keep the contents of the file from falling.

Special cabinets.—For cabinets required for audio-visual materials, see p.213 and 294. Other special cabinets and special files such as the visible card index file for periodicals are shown in the catalogs of office and library supply firms.

12. Miscellaneous items.

Book trucks.

Small—35 inches high, 30 inches long, 14½ inches wide

Large—42¾ inches high, 39¾ inches long, 14½ inches wide

That library is diminutive indeed which does not require a book truck. A large library needs two or three, especially where fluid classroom collections are freely supplied. In this case, several small trucks will be found

useful. They are usually made with two shelves only. One library has designed a "book dolly" fitted with a small bulletin board for use when large numbers of books must be sent to the classroom. In the library itself at least one large truck will be needed. Metal trucks are available but are apt to be noisy even when provided with rubber tires. Edges of trucks should be bound with leather or rubber strips to protect other furniture; wheels should be ball-bearing and rubber-tired, two of swivel type and two fixed. (Plate IV, p.232) Wheels may be purchased separately for use on homemade trucks.

Display cases.—It is customary in newer school buildings to sink display cases into corridor walls. Located near the library, they afford excellent opportunity for publicity. Most librarians will wish an additional case for use inside the reading room. It may be vertical or horizontal, though vertical cases conserve space. A bulletin board close by is desirable. An ordinary table may be made into a display case by placing a glazed framework resembling a hotbed on top. Care must always be taken to have all cases low enough for easy inspection. Glass shelves are an aid. Small wooden display troughs for use on tables can be purchased, or constructed in the school shop.

Typewriter.—Librarian time is too valuable to be wasted on hand-written cards and bibliographies. The library typewriter should be equipped to hold catalog cards securely and permit legible typing close to the bottom. Special keys for library abbreviations are easily installed. If the school is too small to afford a typewriter for library use only, arrangements should be made for sharing a good machine with another department.

Telephone.—A telephone at the circulation desk is desirable in a large reading room, though some librarians prefer to have it located in the work-room where conversation will be less disturbing. Service is primarily intramural, but outside connections are sometimes arranged, usually through the school switchboard.

Book supports, label holders.—Metal book supports and shelf label holders will be needed in numbers related to the size of the book collection. Consult library supply catalogs for designs.

Other items.—Revolving dictionary stands, sorting trays, stools useful in reading low shelves, map racks and atlas stands are useful pieces of equipment not so far mentioned because they are required in the large library only, or in the smaller one to meet special needs; or because the purposes for which they are designed may be served by other equipment. For ex-

ample, flat-topped counter height shelving may serve to accommodate atlases and dictionaries in place of special cases. Small devices evolved out of librarian ingenuity may be constructed by the school carpenter. One such invention was a book carrier of plywood—a trough with handles at the ends to be used when carrying a shelfful of books to a classroom from the library.

Supplies.—Supplies (catalog cards, filing and mending materials, and so on) may be considered as equipment but will be discussed later in connection with their use in the processing of library materials.

X. ARRANGEMENT OF THE LIBRARY

Aisle space:

Between tables (no chairs in aisle) . . 3 feet minimum (4 feet is better)

Between tables (chairs in aisle) 5 feet minimum

Between table ends and shelving . . . Same as between tables

Position of tables and book stacks Ends to the light (or otherwise arranged to conserve eyesight)

Position of circulation desk Near the exit, commanding the room; also near the workroom if possible

Location of files Near the circulation desk, or the reference desk if there is one

Location of card catalog Same

1. **General considerations.** In arranging the library, heed must be given to spacing, lighting, maximum seating capacity, supervision, and conservation of librarian time and strength.

Much of beauty and of balance may be achieved by proper spacing of furniture. But while these aims must be kept in mind, practical considerations must not be lost sight of. The ideal is a combination of the two aims.

Points often overlooked in the layout are the necessity for open spaces, and sufficient aisle width to allow for the concerted movement of pupils towards the exit when the period bell rings. One place where considerable free area is required is in front of the circulation desk. Business comes in rushes, and the talking and confusion are disturbing to pupils at tables placed too close. In planning aisles, main lines of traffic and access to wall shelving should be studied and adjustments made accordingly. Not all aisles need be of the same width.

Pupils should not face the light, nor should the librarian for long periods

of time. Placing an L-shaped circulation desk at one side of the entrance with the workroom not too far behind it is advantageous from the point of view of sightsaving and of convenience both. (See Figure 1, p.207).

Congestion at the main desk is reduced when reserve shelves are placed in another part of the room. In a large library where it may be advisable to provide separate doors for entrance and for exit, the circulation desk should be located near the exit while a smaller and less formal desk for the librarian or professional assistant is placed in a prominent spot near the entrance.

Discipline is largely dependent upon library arrangement. Tables crowded with chairs, or so close together that chair backs interfere, filing cases or stack shelving so placed as to prevent a complete view of the reading room from the librarian's desk are invitations to disorder that wise planning consistently avoids. In the elementary school it is well to arrange for seating the youngest group near the desk.

Equipment used chiefly by the librarian or by pupils under her supervision should be placed near the desk. It should not be necessary to walk the length of the room to extract pictures from a file or to help a boy in his use of the catalog. Nor should the circulation desk be isolated from all shelving and from the workroom, especially if the librarian has no assistant. One method of providing shelf space is to put the desk some distance from the wall and to place counter height shelving slightly in the rear.

2. Arrangement of books. Books should be arranged by the decimal classification, but there are always special groups and collections to be considered. In the elementary school, for example, easy books and picture books may be brought together at one end of the room for grades one to three. The *ribbon arrangement*²⁴ is sometimes used; "a distribution of fiction and nonfiction books which places fiction on lower shelves about the room and nonfiction on the upper shelves of the same cases, or vice versa." Librarians are about evenly divided as to the desirability of this plan.

Considering the library in its educational aspects, it would seem wise to interfere as little as possible with a regular shelf-to-shelf, case-to-case arrangement according to classification. Every deviation involves explanations difficult for pupils to understand in the face of their lessons on classification. By careful estimating it is usually possible to bring special classes of books into favorable locations even while preserving a classified

* Power, E. L. *Work with Children in Public Libraries*. A.L.A., 1943, p.143.

sequence. If, for example, literature and history (800's and 900's) are the classes most in demand in reference work, they may be placed near the librarian's desk and the preceding classes arranged to lead up to them.

Oversized books should be placed either on the bottom shelf of the case where they classify, or in a special case denoted by a symbol added to call numbers.

The ready reference collection should be kept in the neighborhood of the desk so that the librarian may the better supervise its use. Reserve books shelved entirely away from the desk relieve crowding but require an assistant to look after them. Lacking help, the librarian will probably wish to keep reserves close at hand—perhaps behind the desk.

Locating all receptacles for magazines (display rack, storage cupboards and shelves for bound volumes) close to each other is advantageous, and use will be facilitated if space for the *Readers' Guide* adjoins. A counter or a table fitted with pigeonholes may serve the purpose.

Fiction located close to the exit has a tendency to disappear, as do radio manuals, debaters' handbooks, volumes on games and sports and other too popular volumes. They may therefore be shelved behind the desk, their unusual location being indicated by a symbol added to the call number. Display shelves or racks will naturally be located near the entrance or alongside the approach to the desk where they are most likely to be seen.

It is the custom in some schools to shelve as a separate collection titles appearing on the required English reading lists. While this may facilitate quick handling and therefore be permissible in a library that is undermanned, it is not good pedagogy, for it re-enforces pupil distaste for whatever is required reading—titles somehow different, objectionable and in a class apart. Placing these books on regular shelves is far better.

XI. MAKING THE INITIAL SKETCH

The individuals chiefly concerned in library planning are the librarian or library supervisor, or both, the school principal, and the architect. Because the librarian is the individual most familiar with the services to be rendered by the library and with essential equipment, the others rightly look to her for ideas as to possible layouts and indication of the items of equipment required.

To convey her ideas as to layout, a simple floor plan should be drawn showing general arrangement and space allocations. The use of cross sectioned paper will be helpful in working out this initial sketch. Allowing

each square to stand for a unit of area ($\frac{1}{4}$ inch equals 1 foot), rooms may with little effort be drawn to scale. Bits of the paper cut to represent the floor spaces occupied by tables, files, desk and so on may be shifted about experimentally within the room outlines. Their arrangement having been finally decided upon, they are penciled in and labeled with identifying symbols or words.

Undoubtedly the librarian, the supervisor if there is one, and the principal will be in frequent consultation while this is going on so that when finished the sketch may represent the best thinking of all concerned. Placed in the hands of the architect before the plan for the building has reached the blueprint stage it will go a long way toward securing correct treatment for the library unit.

All along, much help may be derived from pictures and floor plans of other libraries. Among the best sources are the catalogs of well-established library equipment houses and illustrated articles in school and library periodicals. Provided with figures on the space allocated to the library and other essential information, such firms are often willing to draw up suggested floor plans and to send pictures and blueprints of special items accompanied by cost estimates.

XII. COUNTING THE COST

Contrary to the general impression, the cost of equipping a school library is not excessive when compared with that for other departments, such as industrial arts or household arts which serve limited groups while the library serves the entire school. For purposes of comparison, per-pupil cost is therefore better than total cost.

Accurate figures on cost have always been difficult to ascertain because a school building is ordinarily financed as a unit, costs not being allocated to departments. Moreover, estimates prepared previous to World War II are unreliable and current figures are only suggestive since prices, even in normal times, fluctuate from year to year, materials vary, built-in or home-made equipment must be figured on a local basis, and costs in a large system where equipment has been standardized may be expected to differ from those for smaller units. Because of these and other reasons, library equipment firms are reluctant to furnish estimates possible of general application. In 1945, the head of one sales department did suggest, however, that about fifty dollars per pupil station might be a safe estimate—presumably on the assumption that all equipment would be standard as

to quality and design, and supplied in movable units—not built-in. This estimate may be compared with an earlier figure of five thousand dollars as the actual total cost of library installation in a western junior high school²⁵ which was about thirty-eight dollars per pupil station. Both estimates are exclusive of books and supplies, and without question both are currently too low.

1. **Supplies.** These are usually figured separately from furnishings and are also subject to wide variation. Check lists and approximate costs for the small library as given by Douglas may be helpful.²⁶

2. **The book collection.** The initial book collection may be considered as a part of equipment, but for convenience its cost is taken up elsewhere (see index). Much of course depends on type of school and educational program. Books for a technical school will ordinarily be more expensive than those required in a college preparatory school; schools engaging in an extensive program of activities will require more books and related materials than others.

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²⁵ Britton, Jasmine. "An Initial Budget for a High School Library." *A.L.A. Bulletin* 32:445-48, July 1938.

²⁶ Douglas, M. P. *Teacher-Librarian's Handbook.* A.L.A., 1941, p.109-10.

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Brief summary of points to be considered when a community library is being planned for the school building.

PLAISTER, C. D. *Floors and Floor Coverings*. A.L.A., 1939.

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POWER, E. L. "Planning and Equipment of Children's Libraries." In her *Work with Children in Public Libraries*. A.L.A., 1943, chapter 8.

Excellent practical advice useful in fitting up the elementary school library.

TINKER, M. A. "Lighting Portfolio: Libraries." *Nation's Schools* 27:47, May 1941. In a single page, a lighting expert gives the most important lighting considerations for the library.

State departments of education in which wide-awake school library supervisors are at work frequently develop floor plans and scale drawings for the use of local contractors in fitting up library corners and small libraries in rural schools. If your state is among those listed in the A.L.A. Handbook (*A.L.A. Bulletin* no.13) as maintaining an office of supervision, write for help.

Valuable pictures, floor plans, and drawings are to be found in the catalogs of library supply firms: Gaylord Brothers, Syracuse, New York and Stockton, California; Remington Rand Business Service, Library Bureau Division, 315 Fourth Avenue, New York City and 41 First Street, San Francisco; Demco (Demco Library Supplies) 114 S. Carroll Street, Madison, Wisconsin.

Suggestions for audio-visual equipment will be found in Chapter IX. See also educational and library periodicals and books dealing in a general way with audio-visual learning.

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V

*Internal Organization and
Administration*

Business Practice

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|--------------------------------|--|
| I. <i>The Library Budget</i> | IV. <i>Acquisition: Materials Other Than Books</i> |
| 1. Sources and importance | 1. Periodicals |
| 2. Areas to be covered | 2. Pamphlets, government publications, etc. |
| 3. Examples of budgets | 3. Audio-visual materials |
| 4. Miscellaneous suggestions | 4. Library supplies |
| II. <i>Financial Records</i> | V. <i>Statistical Records and Reports</i> |
| 1. Budget book | VI. <i>Publicity</i> |
| 2. Petty cash account | 1. Purposes and principles |
| III. <i>Acquisition: Books</i> | 2. Help for the librarian |
| 1. Book selection | VII. <i>Inventory and Insurance</i> |
| 2. Procedures in ordering | 1. Inventory |
| 3. Gifts | 2. Insurance |
| 4. The books received | VIII. <i>The Staff Manual</i> |
| 5. Textbooks | |
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I. THE LIBRARY BUDGET

1. **Sources and importance.** The school library is a business organization operating principally on funds appropriated by the board of education, or, in the case of a private school, appropriated by the institution or accruing from gifts or endowment. Board of education appropriations may be supplemented by funds made available through the public library, and through grants from the state. School libraries both public and private may also benefit from gifts and from small sums accruing from fines.

In every school system maintaining organized libraries, a definite sum should be earmarked in the annual school budget for library purposes. In general practice, this item is presumed to cover printed materials and their binding, and special supplies not required elsewhere in the system. It may be extended and enlarged to cover audio-visual materials and textbooks. Salaries, equipment, and general maintenance are ordinarily omitted since these are included in the general school budget. The sum allocated for library purposes will necessarily be much greater the first year or two of the library's existence than later when, the basic book collection having

been purchased, it will only be necessary to provide for replacements, repairs and binding, and orderly, continuous development.

Without question, an annual appropriation is imperative. In the absence of advance knowledge as to the amount available during each school year for library purposes there can be no adequate planning and balancing of expenditures in relation to need—no businesslike administration of the book fund. Unless there is a definite allocation to the library it becomes a helpless mendicant, dependent upon the caprice of the board of education and chance gifts from interested groups.

2. *Areas to be covered.* Assuming that the board of education makes an annual appropriation, whose job is it to set up a library budget? And how does it show the board the expenditures which must be covered?

Presumably, budget-making will be a cooperative undertaking participated in by the librarian, the principal or a faculty committee, and the supervisor of libraries if there is one. The librarian takes the initiative in suggesting the total amount required and its allocation, but the principal must approve the budget before it is presented to the board of education.

For first consideration are the areas to be covered; or the types of materials for which the library is responsible. Are free textbooks and audio-visual materials supplied through other avenues, or does the library, acting as the materials center of the school, supply them all?

In the latter case, the budget falls naturally into three divisions: (a) library reading matter, including special expenses incurred in its organization, publicizing, and care;¹ (b) textbooks and near-textbooks; (c) audio-visual materials.

The amount to be allocated to area (a) will depend largely on whether the library has been in existence long enough to have accumulated a good basic collection of books. If not, the initial appropriation must be generous enough to provide such a collection. After that, the amount may be smaller, but it must appear annually since no library can give effective service very long without constant addition of fresh material.

The total in area (a) may be subdivided as experience and good judgment suggest. Most libraries will want to set aside a special fund for books of general reference. After that may come estimates for departments, for miscellaneous books outside of departmental demands, for duplicates, re-

¹ Graphic materials such as pictures, maps, etc. for the vertical file are often included in division (a) when the library is not responsible for visual aids of a more complicated character.

placements, periodicals and other nonbook reading materials, supplies, binding, etc.

Books of general reference are given special mention because they are expensive and require frequent renewal if reference service is to be effective. *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow* suggests,² for example, that "special provision must be made at least every five years for encyclopedia replacements."

The amount allocated to each department may be set down separately, or a lump sum may be indicated. Such factors as curricular requirements, departmental enrollments, the nature and extent of materials already available in the library or obtainable through loan, observation of each department's use of present library resources, the relative cost of books in different fields, and the need to preserve balance in the library collection as a whole are taken into account in arriving at the figures. Undoubtedly, allotments will vary from year to year as new conditions arise such as the addition of courses or changes in teaching method.

In some schools the allotments are purely a matter of mathematics. Any department's share is to the total book fund as the number of pupils enrolled in that department is to the total enrollment of the school. This has the advantage of being neatly exact and impersonal, but it overlooks use and in many cases has been found to encourage the purchase of unneeded books by department heads whose chief aim is to utilize the funds assigned to them.

A study of departmental allotments made by New York City school librarians some time ago is still helpful.³ In line with a similar study previously made for college libraries,⁴ it was decided that "the average cost per title in each department and the average number of titles published each year" might provide a fair and workable basis for allotments.

But how could the average cost per title for library books in each school subject be established? The method finally fixed upon was to find the average price of books listed for each departmental field in the current *Standard Catalog for High School Libraries*. This average ran at that time from \$3.16 per volume in the field of art to a low of \$2.01 in (modern)

² A.L.A. Committees on Post-War Planning. *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow*. A.L.A., 1945, p.23.

³ Elder, Vera. "Budgets for High School Libraries." *A.L.A. Bulletin* 31:14-20, January 1937.

⁴ Randall, W. M. "College Library Book Budget." *Library Quarterly* 1:421-35, October 1931.

foreign languages and \$2.40 in English, while the price of general books (presumably the ready reference type) went to \$7.54. (See table)

The next step was to determine the number of books produced annually in each subject which were suited to high school use—as proved by the fact that they were listed in the *Standard Catalog* supplements. Study of the supplements revealed that for every one hundred books produced in the field of English, there were three in music, thirty-eight in science, and so on.

Applying both sets of figures to the allocation of the book budget, it was determined that: for every one hundred books in English listed at \$2.40 each, three music books should be provided for at \$3.03 each, eleven art books at \$3.16 each, and so on. Finally, by relating departmental totals to the grand total for all departments a percentage estimate for each was arrived at.

PER CENT OF BUDGET ALLOTMENT FOR NEW BOOKS BY DEPARTMENTS⁵

Subject	Number of Titles	Average List Price per Title	Total Cost	Per Cent of Total Cost
Art	11	\$3.16	\$ 34.76	5
Business and accounting	1	2.92	2.92	.5
Domestic science	12	2.22	26.64	4
English	100	2.40	240.00	32
Foreign languages	2	2.87	5.74	1
General	11	7.54	82.94	11
Health	9	2.02	18.08	2
Latin and Greek	3	2.01	6.03	1
Mathematics	1	2.61	2.61	.5
Music	3	3.03	9.09	1
Science	38	2.91	110.58	14
Social science	51	3.35	170.85	23
Vocational	12	2.77	33.24	5
Total			\$743.48	100

Before the final budget percentages could be determined, replacements had to be figured as well as new books. Interestingly enough, the percentages for replacements and new books were found to run extremely close.

It is unlikely that there will be time in many school libraries to determine each year's departmental estimates on such an elaborate basis. Nor can such timeworn factors as departmental use, enrollment and the like

⁵ Elder, *op. cit.*

be disregarded. In spite of changes in book prices and other factors tending to make the New York figures inaccurate at the present time, the method offers food for thought. It shows that the natural and social sciences require heavier allotments than might be guessed and that approximately a tenth of the budget should be earmarked for the purchase of general reference books. It suggests that the cost per volume in the high school may be considerably higher than has been suspected.

As noted earlier, where the book budget is departmentalized it is important to provide elsewhere for the purchase of miscellaneous titles not in the general reference group nor obviously related to the work of any particular department. Rather, they are titles needed for special purposes: perhaps to enrich an extracurricular activity, to fill holes in the library collection, or to engage the interest of reluctant readers. In a way, the budget item for such purchases might be called "the librarian's fund" since she is the individual chiefly responsible for ascertaining and filling such special needs.

Provision should be made for periodicals in the library budget, and an item for pamphlets may be desirable though it is probably more customary to include the latter in departmental estimates. Something like 15 per cent of the total budget has been suggested as a reasonable estimate for periodicals. However, the American Library Association Committees on Post-War Planning approach the problem from the point of view of the number of titles needed in schools of varying grades and enrollments, suggesting ten to fifteen titles for an elementary school enrolling two hundred, and fifteen to twenty-five for a high school of similar size.⁶

In some situations a special budgetary allowance for duplicates may be advisable. In others, it is possible to provide for them within departmental estimates. In either case the extent to which duplication should be carried is a perplexing problem. One way of approaching it is from the point of view of use. If the reason advanced for heavy duplication of a volume is its constant use in the preparation of daily classroom assignments, then that title should be carefully scrutinized. Presumably it is a textbook,⁷ and as such should not be purchased out of library funds. However, some leeway should be allowed in the case of occasional titles textbook in form but not used as such. Single copies of such books may

⁶ American Library Association Committees on Post-War Planning. *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow*. A.L.A., 1945, p.22.

⁷ See definition of "textbook," p.163 (footnote).

legitimately be purchased out of library funds, and in some schools they may be duplicated up to a fixed number of copies, say five or six in a large school. Even here, unless such expenditures have been taken into account in setting up the library budget, textbook purchases should be financed out of textbook funds. The books may still be *circulated* through the library if that seems desirable.

Where the library is already a going concern it is necessary to provide for *replacements* and for *binding*. Unless this is done the book collection soon lacks the physical attractiveness essential to encouraging the reading habit, and large numbers of its books and magazines go completely to pieces or, in the case of periodicals, are misplaced or lost. The annual inventory throws considerable light on the replacement problem since it reveals losses and discards. Records of binding bills paid in previous years will help in making current estimates for binding, though here, as elsewhere, special situations may have to be met.

Many supplies may be gotten from the school stockroom on a requisition approved by the principal and need not be provided for in the library budget. Examples are paper, pencils, ink, and typewriter ribbons. On the other hand, provision should be made in the library budget for supplies not available through the stockroom: pamphlet and magazine binders, circulation and other record forms, and mending materials. Distinction between supplies and equipment may sometimes be difficult, but supplies usually represent materials to be used up, equipment those which remain. Funds for the latter are ordinarily included in the budget for general school equipment.

A *general fund* is often provided through fines on overdue books, though not necessarily so. It furnishes the wherewithal with which to meet unforeseen expenses, usually of no great amount, incurred in the daily administration of the library: payment for a yard of cheesecloth needed for mending purposes, purchase of display materials, the acquisition of a pamphlet through a small cash payment. If the general fund is sufficiently large, it is possible to charge supplies against it, thus eliminating a special budgetary item for supplies. Many libraries simplify bookkeeping by setting up and maintaining a petty cash account (p.255) with cash withdrawn from the general fund.

3. **Examples of budgets.** The following are budgets from three schools. The first two are senior high schools, the third a private school serving all grades.

I.

Duplicates	\$100.00
Replacements	300.00
Magazines	125.00
New books	275.00
	<hr/>
	\$800.00

II.

English	30 per cent
Social sciences	25 per cent
Periodicals	15 per cent
Science	10 per cent
Reference	10 per cent
Other subjects	10 per cent

III.

1. General operation (binding, magazine subscriptions, supplies, equipment)

Binding magazines and rebinding books	\$200.00
Magazine subscriptions	100.00
Supplies (catalog cards, book pockets, etc.)	50.00
Pictures	10.00
Government bulletins, etc.	15.00
Equipment	50.00
Contingent	75.00
	<hr/>
	\$500.00
2. Books

Reference	\$ 45.00
General reading, grades and high school	135.00
Departments	
Social studies	40.00
Industrial art	20.00
Science (including chemistry, physics, biology, general science)	60.00
Languages	
French	20.00
German	20.00

Household arts	20.00
Fine arts	15.00
English	20.00
Education	15.00
Contingent	90.00
	<hr/>
	\$500.00

Budget I is from a school where a librarian of long and successful experience has the confidence of the teaching staff. Apparently in the intimately cordial relationships of that school it is satisfactory to lump estimates under a few headings and to leave subject or departmental allocations to the discretion of the librarian in conference with teachers. This may be a satisfactory method in some cases but is not recommended where the librarian is inexperienced or where there is objection from members of the faculty.

Budget II furnishes percentages only and seems inadequate. The low estimate for science was typical before World War II, the demands of which showed many library collections to be woefully deficient in this field and the related one of technology. The heavy allocation for English presumably covered recreational and general reading such as current fiction, travel and biography.

Budget III is interesting because it is complete and definite. The item "Contingent" under Section 2, "Books," is large and may be because this is an experimental school where emergency requests for materials may be expected at any time; or perhaps "contingent" here means "miscellaneous." The heavy estimate for binding was necessary because of a special situation unlikely to be repeated the following year and furnishes a good example of adjustment to current emergencies.

4. Miscellaneous suggestions. In setting up the budget for approval of the principal it is excellent practice to append brief notes explaining unusual items such as the size of the binding item (as in Budget III).

Preparation of the book budget early in the spring is advantageous since knowledge of how much can be spent during the coming year is helpful when instructors drop in to talk with the librarian about the selection of titles for orders placed in the summer.

Care must be taken to maintain balance. There is constant danger of librarian and principal being swept off their feet by passing and perhaps unconscious personal enthusiasms or by the importunities of persistent

instructors. For reasons such as these a faculty budget committee may prove to be a safeguard.

II. FINANCIAL RECORDS

Accounting in the school system is the function of the business office. There orders for goods are sent out and bills are paid. Is there then any need to keep financial records in the library?

The answer is "Yes." First, because under any system of budgeting the librarian should be able to tell at any moment how much has been expended under each item. Second, because fines, damages and expenditures from petty cash should be recorded in a businesslike way.

1. **Budget book.** A budget book provides the easiest way to keep track of budget expenditures. It is made up of horizontally ruled sheets with vertical columns. A column is used for each item in the budget. The name of the item and the amount appropriated is entered at the top of the column. As bills are approved for payment, date and identification are entered at the left and the amount entered in the column corresponding to the item to be charged. Periodically the columns may be totaled, making it easy to compare the amount actually expended for each item with the amount appropriated.

Budget I, page 253 would require but four columns in the budget book; Budget II, six columns; Budget III, nineteen columns. If, in working with Budget III, book purchases were all lumped together in one column, one would no longer have a budget book, strictly speaking. An additional record covering the amount spent for books for each of the departments listed in the budget would be necessary.

From time to time, the librarian checks her totals in the budget book with those in the business office to make sure they agree.

2. **Petty cash account.** A petty cash account is utilized to care for small expenditures chargeable to the general fund. To establish it, the general fund is drawn upon for an advance of some ten dollars or so, out of which the librarian pays for small purchases and records them in the petty cash account. It is good practice to save sales tickets, or cash register receipts. When the fund gets low, a report is made to which these evidences of payments are attached. The petty cash fund is then reimbursed to the amount already expended, thus bringing it back to its original amount. At the end of the year, the account is audited by a school official and any balance is turned over to the school office.

Sometimes by arrangement with the school office, fine money is turned into the petty cash account. Where such a practice is followed, record is naturally kept of money collected and reports on the fund show these collections.

III. ACQUISITION: BOOKS

1. **Book selection.** Study of the budget has indicated the materials which it is the librarian's responsibility to acquire. Among these, the most important are books. The guiding principles governing their choice were enumerated in Chapter VIII. There remain the practical steps through which titles find their way into the book orders compiled from time to time by the librarian.

Routines vary according to whether the library functions as an independent unit or as a branch of a centralized system, and also according to the rules and legal restrictions under which the school operates. But no matter what the routines or outside connections, the initiative in selection and acquisition belongs to the head librarian. She is the school's book expert as well as the administrative head of an important department.

Personal investigation.—As mentioned earlier, the checking of authoritative lists is one avenue to the selection of books. But *personal investigation* is far better. Librarians working in cities where excellent bookstores may be visited are fortunate; so too are those closely connected with or having access to excellent public libraries, for there volumes new and old may be examined. Where the public library conducts a weekly book clinic, school librarians often participate. Lacking such opportunities, librarians should be given opportunity to examine the book exhibits occurring in connection with county, state, or regional library meetings, and to visit out-of-town schools, libraries and bookstores. The wise principal willingly arranges for such opportunities; he may well consider whether some of the time scheduled to teachers for attendance upon institutes and teachers' meetings may not profitably be accorded the librarian for book exploration.

Faculty participation.—Faculty participation may be arranged for in various ways, but should never be routine and mechanical as when each instructor or department head perfunctorily hands to the principal once a year a list of desired titles without checking with the library. A far better plan moves likes this: throughout the year, the librarian sends to faculty members personal notes regarding new titles presumably of interest

to them, and teachers discuss with the librarian titles they have discovered, thus gradually building up a "consideration file." To facilitate such interchanges, some libraries circulate *The Booklist* among faculty members with the request that they initial titles in which they are interested or make out order cards for them. (See sample)

ORDER CARD

Class number	Author (surname first)
No. of copies ordered	Title
Date ordered	Volumes
Dealer	Publisher Edition or series
Date received	Illustrator Year of publication
Date of bill	Price No. of copies desired
Cost per copy	Department for which recommended
L.C. card no.	Teacher making request
	Reason for request

When the time approaches for the library to assemble a book order, the principal (or the librarian speaking through the principal) announces the fact by bulletin or other suitable method. The announcement emphasizes that suggestions are solicited from all members of the instructional group. These suggestions, it is explained, are preferably to be in written form on order cards furnished by the librarian. They may be turned in directly to the library, or through the department head with his approval. The direct method seems more desirable since it involves less red tape and the librarian checks all titles with the department head before actually making the order. It is made clear that the librarian will gladly assist in any way and hopes to have an opportunity to consult personally with each instructor concerning his choices. It is also made clear that faculty suggestions will be considered on their merits, with due regard to the present book collection and funds available, and that final decision will be made only after conference with the principal, the department head, or the supervisor of school libraries, or all three.

As faculty recommendations are turned in they are added to the consideration file which for convenience is now arranged under subject or school department. Finally, the librarian and department head in conference select from the file as many desirable titles as can be paid for out of the department's budgetary allowance.

A list for purchase prepared in this way has every chance of being the right list. More than that, the informality of the method promotes mutual understanding. The librarian gets the teacher's point of view and an intimate glimpse of classroom necessities; the teacher sees the library as whole, learns its resources, and acquires understanding of its problems. Problems arising in connection with the purchase of duplicates and classroom collections are more easily solved. If the instructor must have a generous number of duplicates to fit the work as organized, here is opportunity to make the situation clear. Or perhaps the request for duplicates is made through lack of information concerning available library resources and conference brings such resources to light.

Pupil participation.—Like teachers, pupils are profitably encouraged to make known to the library their wants, their likes and dislikes. Perhaps the volume on radio tentatively selected by the librarian is not one boys most covet and after conference with the faculty director of the radio club they are ready to suggest another. There are various methods for securing pupil cooperation in selection. More than one librarian has made it a policy to ask capable pupils to read and report on titles under consideration. Help may come through informal talks over the loan desk concerning books read and titles admired. A project worked out in one school⁸ has been followed with variations in a number of others. It consisted in assigning to the senior class a small portion of the library budget to be spent for the best possible list of recent publications the class was able to compile with the aid of teacher and librarian. Needless to say, such a project is highly educational and produces an excellent list.

2. Procedures in ordering. The preparation of the book order once the titles have been selected and approved does not differ essentially from its preparation in any other library except that it may have to be typed on a special order or requisition form supplied by the school office.⁹ To guard

⁸ Heller, F. M., and LaBrant, L. L. *The Librarian and the Teacher of English*. A.L.A., 1938, p.45-57.

⁹ If the student is not familiar with the steps in book ordering he is referred to the following: (see opposite page.)

against mistakes on the part of the book dealer in filling the order, it is carefully typed from the order cards representing titles approved for purchase and removed from the consideration file after having been checked for all essential items of information: correct form of author and title, edition, publisher, list price, and type of binding if there is a choice between cloth and paper or if the book is desired in reconstructed binding. These items are extremely important. Lacking them, the dealer does not know what to do and cannot be blamed for unsatisfactory service.¹⁰

FORM FOR A BOOK ORDER

Bookland School Library Blankville, Nebraska		May 12, 1939
Order no. 283		
A. C. McClurg & Company Chicago, Illinois:		
Gentlemen:		
Please fill the following order, giving us the customary library discount of per cent. Bill should be made out to Bookland School Library, School District 31, Blanktown, Nebraska. Shipment should be via freight.		
No. of copies		List price
1	Bleyer, W. G. Newspaper writing and editing rev. & enl. 1932 Hough	2.25
1	Lincoln library 2 v. 1936 Frontier pr.	19.50
2	Munro, W. B. Government of American cities 4th ed. 1926 Macm. @ 3.50	7.00

A special word is needed concerning reconstructed bindings. To meet the hard wear to which library books may be subjected, they are often purchased in resewed, reinforced, or buckram binding, the cost of which at prewar rates ran from thirty-five to forty-five cents, depending on the nature of the "reconstruction." This cost was approximately equal to the amount of the discount, thus making the cost of the book more or less

Cannon, C. L. *Order and Accession Department*. A.L.A., 1930. "Manual of Library Economy," 17. Somewhat out of date but still a useful little guide.

Douglas, M. P. *Teacher-Librarian's Handbook*. A.L.A., 1941, p.69-72. Simple directions for ordering through the school office.

Drury, F. K. W. *Order Work for Libraries*. A.L.A., 1930. Comprehensive discussion of all phases of order work. Excellent for reference, but routines too complicated for most school libraries.

¹⁰ Trent, R. M. "Be Kind to Your Book Dealer." *Library Journal* 69:581-82, July 1944. How to prepare the book order and covering letter to avoid errors.

equivalent to the list price. Not all library books need to be reconstructed, but, for those not initially well bound by the publishers and due for hard usage, it is an economy. The life of the book is increased two or three times without interruption for rebinding and with elimination of the delay and record-keeping consequent upon the same. More than this, the bindings now supplied are cheerful in color and often display decorations drawn from the book or its jacket.

Arrangements may be made with some book dealers to use their discretion in supplying titles in reconstructed bindings. In other cases it is better to order direct from firms engaging in resewing and rebinding.¹¹

In the order routine whether a covering letter to the book dealer is supplied by the librarian along with the order list or the list is merely turned over to the principal or the school purchasing agent to proceed with as either may choose depends upon whether the librarian has been authorized to do business directly with the book dealer. From every point of view, it is desirable, as Morrison has pointed out,¹² that the librarian should have such authorization and that the books should be delivered directly to the school library for checking and recording, after which the invoice bearing the librarian's O.K. is given to the business office for payment.

Spacing book orders.—The proper spacing of book orders is important, but frequently difficult. It should not be necessary for the entire annual appropriation to be spent all at once. In an ideal situation the librarian is free to place orders at such times during the year as good sense and library needs demand, the only restrictions being the necessity of keeping within the budget and seeing that bills are promptly checked, approved by the

¹¹ Representative firms: Baker & Taylor (Chivers Binding), 55 Fifth Avenue, New York; H. R. Hunting Co., 29 Worthington Street, Springfield, Massachusetts; New Method Book Bindery, Inc., Jacksonville, Illinois; Wagenwoord & Co., Lansing, Michigan.

¹² The school libraries of course use a great variety of material, and in the case of library books they deal with a very large number of items. If library accessions were treated like textbook purchases, the list of items with which the [school] warehouse organization has to deal would be greatly extended and the overhead factor would be enormous. The time and energy required for dealing with a single reference book, for instance, would be nearly as much as that required for handling perhaps a thousand texts in arithmetic.

Hence, so far as library books and equipment peculiar to libraries are concerned, the material organization for libraries is set up on an independent basis. The librarian conducts purchases and the routine of accessions, and control of withdrawal serves the same function as the warehouse organization.

In the case of ordinary library supplies, the process of purchasing and warehousing stock is the same as that for other forms. (Morrison, H. C. *Management of the School Money*. Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1932, p.375-76.)

principal, and forwarded to the school office for payment.¹³ Since it is customary in school systems to place most orders for instructional materials in the spring, it may require some maneuvering to make library orders an exception. In some cases the situation can be met by placing the bulk of the annual book order in the spring but leaving an unexpended balance in the budget to care for special demands arising during the school year.

Bids.—Another difficulty arises out of legal restrictions under which the school purchasing office may be forced to operate. In some states, for example, the legal limit beyond which orders may not be placed without advertising for bids is strictly limited. This is particularly unfortunate when the entire school library budget must be expended at one time. Getting bids on book orders is not as a rule good library practice. Experience shows that except where orders for an entire system or state are consolidated, little or nothing is saved. Dealers' discounts may be ascertained without going through the formalities of bidding which take a distressing amount of each dealer's time. If bids are not carefully checked by the librarian, they may exhibit substitutions in editions and other undesirable practices on the part of unscrupulous bidders. More than this, the lowest bid is not necessarily the most economical. The excellent service given by the reputable library book jobber in following up out-of-print and out-of-stock items, in correcting errors, and in generally saving time for all concerned may more than make up for a slight saving in dollars and cents.

A little ingenuity in spacing orders or in breaking up a large one into sections separately put through (replacements in one group, fiction in another, and so on) may overcome the necessity for bids. Conference between the librarian and the school purchasing agent may reveal other methods. When all is said and done, few school libraries arrive at satisfactory order arrangements all at once, at least not unless the ordering is carried on through the public library or a central school library office. But school librarians and school purchasing agents working together can in the end adapt to school conditions the routines and practices that serve in other libraries.

*Subscription books.*¹⁴—With very few exceptions, all titles needed in the school library can and should be purchased through regular trade channels

¹³ Belknap, S. Y. "The Library as a Reference Center." *Library Journal* 62:344, April 15, 1937.

¹⁴ A subscription book is one "for which a definite market is created, before or after publication, by soliciting individual orders." *A.L.A. Glossary of Library Terms*. A.L.A., 1943, p.137.

at favorable discounts. To buy through traveling salesmen is risky and as a rule uneconomical. (See further, Chapter VIII, p.155)

The subscription book agent is not to be confused with the publisher's representative who from time to time visits the library to create good will, exhibit new books, and explain services. Such visits afford an excellent chance for the librarian isolated from book centers to learn of and possibly to examine new publications. Subscription agents are, on the other hand, persons interested in taking immediate orders¹⁵ for publications most of which are better suited for private purchase than for acquisition by the school library, or which represent remainders¹⁶ offered by high-pressure companies at fancy prices.

Courteous treatment should be given all agents, but the following rules offered public libraries are equally applicable with very slight change in school situations:

Never deliver a signed order to the agent.

Have agents leave circulars and information concerning the books.

Insist on time to study the offer (overnight at least).

Examine all contracts carefully. If books are to be sent on approval, be sure there are no strings attached.

Consult *Subscription Books Bulletin*.

Write to the library extension agency [if there is one, or to the office of state supervisor of school libraries.]

Mail the order if purchase is decided upon, stating clearly the terms of the purchase. Keep a duplicate on file.¹⁷

3. **Gifts.** If subscription books present a problem, so too do gifts. To the school library come two kinds: library books presented by interested individuals or groups and textbooks donated or transferred from other departments or schools in the system.

The first are subject to the same discriminating evaluation that characterizes the acceptance of gifts in any other well-regulated library; that is, they are examined for physical suitability (size of type, format) and for

¹⁵ Articles worth reading in this connection:

Rose, D. B. "Don't Ask Me Another." *Subscription Books Bulletin* 1:4-5ff, April 1930.

Ward, G. O. "Concerning Subscription Books." *Journal of the National Education Association* 24:61-62, February 1935.

¹⁶ "Remainder: A publisher's stock of unsold copies of a book disposed of as a lot, to be resold at a reduced price." *A.L.A. Glossary of Library Terms*. A.L.A., 1943, p.115.

¹⁷ Moshier, L. M., and LeFevre, H. S. *The Small Public Library*. A.L.A., 1942, p.59-60.

usefulness and literary quality. Sometimes this is difficult, for a school official may in a hurried moment have accepted titles unsuited for the library. If the library is under public library direction this situation is more easily met, for it is the general rule that all material must be approved by the central library. There, gifts unsuited to school use may be accepted for the adult collection and no feelings hurt. When the school library is an independent unit, the situation is more difficult and the librarian needs all her tact—first, to arrange with school officials that gifts shall not be received unconditionally and without previous investigation, and second, to dispose of unsuitable books in a way to cause a minimum of friction. The latter can sometimes be done by securing permission of the donor to transfer the books to another library. Sometimes the librarian merely “forgets” to prepare them for circulation. The one sure thing is that books must not find their way to the shelves if they do not belong there, and it is the business of the librarian to prevent it. If gifts are retained they should always be courteously acknowledged.

While the library may sometimes have to adopt a negative program, it should also have a positive one. The need for books is legitimately advertised, and gifts from clubs, senior classes and other interested groups urged. If along with the invitation to give there go definite suggestions as to desirable titles, the class or group may have the pleasure of making a specific gift which is definitely in line with needs. There is a certain aspect of psychology involved here which is worth considering. The purchase of one specific title in a beautifully illustrated edition may easily be more appealing than merely adding a small sum to the book fund.

To avoid the inconvenience of establishing separate gift collections, as well as to provide a gracious means of acknowledgment, a specially designed bookplate or gift plate may be used. It should have a blank line upon which the name of the donor may be entered.

The practice of having “book showers” to provide library books is a doubtful one. Schools do not depend upon “showers” to furnish home economics kitchens, the gymnasium or the chemistry laboratory; and to resort to this method in the case of the library fosters the idea that it is a charity and brings in collections of books that have every possibility of becoming an embarrassment. However, if a “shower” becomes inevitable, announcement should be made in advance that only suitable books can be retained, the library reserving the right to dispose of others as good judgment indicates. It may help to issue in advance, as in the case of

other gifts, lists of wanted titles. In case of extensive donations, it is usually better to urge a gift of money rather than of books. Showing that better discounts on book purchases can be gotten by the library is one approach to securing money instead of books.

The second class of gifts, textbooks offered for library use, must also be scrutinized carefully, i.e., the offer of an armful of free texts left over when the history department adopts a new manual; two or three titles to which a teacher likes to refer his pupils and which he wishes the library to care for; sample copies received by the principal and passed on to the library.

Some of these may be welcome additions, for the modern text is attractive and well written. But there is grave danger of so filling the shelves with this type of literature that the library resembles and functions as a book warehouse rather than as a reading center. It is sometimes possible to meet the problem by agreeing to handle certain texts temporarily desirable without processing them as library books. In other cases, the library must definitely refuse to burden itself with unnecessary luggage.

4. The books received.

Checking.—The steps taken when library books on order are delivered differ in various situations. Wherever ordering is carried on by the individual library rather than through a central school library office it will be necessary to check the books against the order list, a duplicate of which is retained in the library. It will also be necessary to check the invoice, and to send the latter approved for payment to the business office after recording the amount of the bill in the budget book.

Accessioning.—Following the receipt and checking of any books either as gifts or through purchase, it has been customary in school libraries to accession, i.e., to make by date a simple business record of items received.¹⁸ This step is now frequently omitted, though where it is necessary to put books to work before they can be cataloged and shelf-listed at least an initial business record providing an identifying number and indicating source and cost for each book seems desirable, especially since the record can be made with little trouble by a clerical assistant. As a rule the accession book is a loose-leaf one, columnar in arrangement to insure speed and accuracy. Where school libraries omit this book, they may make use

¹⁸ For more detailed information on accessioning see:

Douglas, M. P. *Teacher-Librarian's Handbook*. A.L.A., 1941, p.14-16.

Mosier, L. M., and LeFevre, H. S. *The Small Public Library*. A.L.A., 1942, p.60-62.

of order or shelf-list cards instead. More appears about such combined records in Chapter XII.

5. **Textbooks.** Procedures with free textbooks are simpler than in the case of library books. Since ordering a limited number of titles in wholesale lots requires little bibliographic knowledge, there may be no special reason why this step, as well as the checking of the order when the books arrive, should not be carried out by clerical help in the school purchasing office. In case the librarian does the ordering, she should know that texts are not ordinarily stocked by library book jobbers. Texts are obtained direct from publishers or wholesale textbook dealers more cheaply than through library sources.

When the textbooks reach the library, it will be necessary to stamp and number them for identification and to prepare for each title a card indicating the number of copies received. On the card may also be entered, if necessary, the date received, source, and cost; and at the end of the year, the number of losses and discards. An accession book such as is used for individual library books is unnecessary, as is classification. Cataloging and processing for circulation are simplified, though the presence of the books is noted in the library catalog. Call numbers on author, title and subject cards may be replaced by the word "textbook."

IV. ACQUISITION: MATERIALS OTHER THAN BOOKS

The steps involved in the selection of materials other than books are similar to those for books, but procedures in ordering differ.

1. **Periodicals.** In the case of magazines, bids may be solicited from two or three reputable magazine agencies *accustomed to serving libraries*. Placing orders through such agencies is important because they, far better than a local agent, are prepared to handle the many details of magazine subscriptions. It is not desirable practice to ask for bids after the first year or so unless something goes wrong. As in the case of books, consultation between librarian and the school purchasing officer will help in arriving at satisfactory arrangements for ordering. Authorization of the librarian to carry through the process will save time for the school office and for the librarian as well.

Magazine subscriptions for nine or ten months—the length of the school year only—are not recommended. The practice interferes with reference use of back numbers and offers slight if any saving. On the other hand, subscriptions extending more than twelve months should be resisted,

according to Martin,¹⁹ since annual re-evaluation for school purposes is essential. Newspaper subscriptions may well be for the school term only. Bills for both are checked by the librarian and forwarded to the school office for payment.

It is convenient to have all magazine subscriptions expire at approximately the same time. This date should not be during the summer vacation when the librarian is absent. Special arrangements for the *delivery of periodical mail to the library* are always desirable; during the summer they are imperative. If left in open receptacles in the school office many numbers disappear. The box truck shown in Plate IV, p.232 placed in a convenient spot after the postman was notified, was used in one library for summer mail.

All library periodicals must be checked upon receipt. Use of a specially ruled card saves time. For forms consult supply catalogs. A visible index file is desirable. It facilitates ascertaining at a glance what periodicals are subscribed for, whether the current issue has been received, whether numbers are missing, and so on.

2. **Pamphlets, government publications, etc.** Aids in locating and selecting pamphlets were discussed in Chapter IX. Titles of considerable length or costing over fifty cents may be included in book orders, but as a rule pamphlets are ordered separately. The easiest method of securing them is to place orders with a reliable distributing agency²⁰ thus avoiding the correspondence and bookkeeping inevitable when each is acquired separately.

Government publications, reports, bulletins and the like may be secured by checking and sending lists or titles to the issuing department or to a U.S. Congressman with a request letter. If available, they will usually be sent gratis since Congressmen, as well as issuing government agencies, are allowed to distribute a certain quota free of charge, and if their supply is not exhausted, readily respond to requests. The U.S. Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C., has government publications for sale. If purchases are made through this source buying from the Superintendent a block of coupons which can be torn off and enclosed in payment of various items as ordered is an easy method to use. A check or post-

¹⁹ Martin, L. K. *Magazines for School Libraries*. Wilson, 1946, p.14.

²⁰ Bacon and Wieck, Inc., Northport, Long Island, New York, distribute pamphlets, booklets, bulletins, and paper bound books issued in the United States at a cost about equivalent to the postage required to order separately.

office order for one dollar or more may accompany a small order with a request that any balance be returned in five-cent coupons.

Certain *serial publications* emanating from governmental and other sources may be secured gratis through request to the issuing agency to place the library on its mailing list. Others must be ordered annually like periodicals. Upon receipt, serials are checked on specially ruled "continuations"²¹ cards unless of sufficient importance to be accessioned and treated as books. Some libraries assign a class number to the series and insert the continuations card in the shelf list. Reference to the series is also made in the catalog.

3. **Audio-visual materials.** The varied sources from which audio-visual materials come, local practice, questions of rental vs. ownership, and other complications make it impossible to indicate precisely how they are to be acquired. More than likely, the librarian will have to adapt methods and routines useful in other fields as circumstances suggest and to act in the light of such information as may be had from time to time in library and educational publications.²²

If accessioning is practiced in the case of books, it will probably be done also for more important audio-visual items in some such way as shown below. Entries may be for single items or for sets or series:

AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

Accession Number	Date	Item	Source	Cost
26		1 set Keystone Stereographs Italy and Sicily, 100 views	Keystone Co.	Gift

4. Library supplies.

Order routines.—Order routines vary according to the practice of the institution with which the school library is affiliated. The librarian should familiarize herself with that practice and adapt library routines accordingly. If supplies are ordered through a school office, the use of a special supply order form is customary. Often all supplies for the year must be ordered at a stated time, usually just before the close of the school year.

²¹ Hutchins, Margaret, Johnson, A. S., and Williams, M. S. *Guide to the Use of Libraries*. 5th ed. Wilson, 1936, p.33. (Gives form for continuations cards.)

²² See in this connection Shane, M. L. "Audio-Visual Library: An Acquisition Plan." *Peabody Journal of Education* 17:420-30, July, 1940. Also consult Chapter IX Section VII, and bibliography at end of that chapter.

Supply lists.—As working tools for the acquisition of supplies, the librarian should have at hand the catalogs issued by reputable library firms and the printed list of school supplies issued by the local school office. It will save time, money and friction to use school supplies whenever they serve the purpose. Classified lists of school library supplies and of firms selling them may be found in manuals issued by some state library agencies. Time will be saved in reordering if, from the very start, there is kept a descriptive supply record listing all necessary order specifications such as size, quality, color, etc., or giving instead the catalog or stock number, thus:

SUPPLIES LIST

Commodity	Specification or catalog no.	Stock no.	Source
Catalog cards	33025C M		Library Bureau
Ink, India	Higgins, American		Smith & Co.
Order cards	Demco	257	Demco Library
			Supplies
Typewriter ribbon		56	School supply office

Printing and mimeographing.—Printed and mimeographed supplies are a special group. If the school has a printshop it may be possible to have some library printing done there at slight cost; it is sometimes less expensive to print than to mimeograph. The librarian must always consider, however, that the work of amateurs is not so perfect as that of library supply firms, and consequently it is not wise to employ the school shop where absolute accuracy is required, as, for instance, in the cutting of catalog cards by centimeter rule. In the absence of a school shop it is better to adopt standard printed forms available through library supply houses than to have them printed locally. To do so saves time and will probably involve no extra expense.

V. STATISTICAL RECORDS AND REPORTS

Every good business organization issues reports. The school library administered by the public library is required to furnish statistical reports in considerable detail. When organized as an independent unit it may be required by the school to furnish nothing except the yearly inventory. Yet such records as the number and kind of books circulated monthly and yearly, library attendance by teachers and pupils, number of reference

questions asked and answered for each group, reading lists compiled and library lessons given are frequently of real practical value in bringing about understanding and needed change or improvement. Other statistical records useful under varying circumstances are listed and discussed in an article on the evaluation of the school library by Henne,²³ who suggests that it is always important to be sure of the use to which a record may be put and to know that it will have a definite value before beginning it. Additionally, consideration must be given to the way in which information can best be gathered—whether, for instance, by sampling a typical week or month or by a continuous record kept for an entire year or series of years. For many purposes the sampling process works out quite as well as more extended record keeping and saves hours of time.

If these considerations are kept in mind, the library staff will be in no danger of spending an undue amount of time on statistics. But no librarian desirous of forcefully calling attention to library progress or needs should forget that figures often make more effective appeal than words. Thus, a time analysis of the librarian's work day may underscore the need for an assistant or a page far better than pleas or argument.

On the other hand, no librarian's reports to her principal should be limited to statistics. Pupil activities should be stressed; statements made covering the possibilities of service not yet realized; standards listed that have been met or which should be met; instances given of effective cooperation between library and instructors and library and other institutions; participation in projects; and activities of the staff outside the library, including committee service, noted. Running comment on such matters as book talks, class visits, and exhibits should be added. Nor should plans for the future be forgotten. A good report looks forward as well as backward. At least one state supervisory office requests such narrative reports.

Statistics presented graphically are most effective and can be reproduced for publicity purposes. If the librarian is not schooled in the art of graphic illustration, quite likely some clever pupil is and will be more than willing to show pictorially which class reads the most library books or how many new books could have been bought with the money required to replace losses.²⁴

²³ Henne, Frances. "The Evaluation of School Libraries." In National Society for the Study of Education. *Forty-second Yearbook, Pt. II: The Library in General Education*. 1943, p.343-44. (Distributed by the Department of Education, Univ. of Chicago.)

²⁴ The Pictograph Corporation, 142 Lexington Avenue, New York, publishes 1000 *Pictograph Symbols* and a pamphlet giving instructions for making graphs and charts.

VI. PUBLICITY

1. **Purposes and principles.** Actual methods have been hinted at in preceding pages, and are covered in detail in other volumes.²⁵ It will be possible here only to suggest certain purposes which should be recognized and principles which should guide.

Publicity has two principal purposes: to create good will, and to advertise the product.²⁶

Oftentimes in the library the creation of good will is extremely important because of false impressions which have grown up in the past. But even with a satisfactory past, the library still needs publicity to maintain the position of confidence already won. Because of the importance of good will, the librarian does not too closely scrutinize each and every activity that centers in or comes to fruition in the library. Even though participation in Parent's Night or a human interest story in the school paper may not result in an immediate and obvious increase in reading, each may be well worth while in establishing pleasant working relationships and adding to library prestige.

Advertising the product is perhaps more generally recognized as an aim. Posters call attention to books; lists are made and publicized; book jackets are posted on walls and bulletin boards. If such publicity fails to bring results it may be because two very important questions have been overlooked: at whom is the publicity aimed? and what is the result desired? When a list is prepared for the school paper, annotations and form of presentation must be decided upon in relation to the particular group of pupils for whom the librarian is baiting her hook. Boys who are natu-

²⁵ The *Activity Book for School Libraries* and *Activity Book Number Two* by the present author are replete with ideas for library publicity to be carried out by pupils, teachers, and librarian working cooperatively. Frequent articles in library periodicals provide practical suggestions. Excellent examples are:

Focke, H. F., and Ward, G. O. "Library Bulletin Boards." *Wilson Library Bulletin* 15:574-77ff, March 1941.

Grady, Marion. "Publicity for the High School Library." *Library Journal* 64:681-85, September 1939.

Among books for more extended reading are:

Loizeaux, M. D. *Publicity Primer*. 2d ed. rev. Wilson, 1946. Deals with principles.

Ward, G. O. *Publicity for Public Libraries*. 2d ed. Wilson, 1935. Comprehensive, practical manual indicating tools and supplies and furnishing working drawings of equipment.

²⁶ Two articles emphasizing the good will values in library publicity:

Lowe, J. A. "Aim at Your Target." *Library Journal* 65:1010-13, December 1, 1940.

Yorke, Dane. "Thinking Beyond Books." *Library Journal* 65:675-78, September 1, 1940.

rally poor readers cannot be caught if publicity appeals only to the superior few who need but a hint to start them off. Again, the outcomes of publicity must be foreseen. Does the librarian wish to have her appeal to the Parent Teachers' Association result in a gift of money to meet known needs, or is she willing to take a chance on a shower of miscellaneous volumes, most of which will be out of date or unsuitable? In the first case, publicity will specify cash contributions and will emphasize particular books; in the other, a general appeal to the community to help fill the library shelves turns the trick—and provides a great deal of waste paper!

2. **Help for the librarian.** Probably nothing will be more helpful to the school librarian initiating a publicity program than perusing two or three excellent books on the principles of commercial advertising. For the actual carrying out of her publicity she is fortunate in being in an institution which has all the means at hand: art classes looking for practice in poster-making; a newspaper eager for school items; clubs and committees willing to carry through varied projects centering in books and reading; the principal's bulletin inviting comments aimed at teachers; a public address system. All should be recognized as publicity channels and consistently used.

VII. INVENTORY AND INSURANCE

1. **Inventory.** An inventory must be taken every year in most school libraries. Procedure is much the same as elsewhere, that is, books on the shelves and in circulation are checked against the shelf list and losses counted. The inventory can very well be turned over to a clerical assistant who may be aided by pupil checkers. In one school, inventory is taken by the clerical assistant during the spring recess. It can be carried on piecemeal during the year. It is unfortunate, and usually unnecessary, to close the library.²⁷

Having ascertained through inventory that certain books are missing or must be discarded, it might be supposed that notations to that effect should be entered at once on shelf-list and accession records. But books missing from school library shelves have a way of turning up unexpectedly. The annual summer cleaning of the building invariably brings to light library treasures buried under the rubbish in lockers or reposing behind radiators. Other books annoyingly absent from the shelves one month are

²⁷ For methods which can be adapted for use in almost any library see Douglas, M. P. *Teacher-Librarian's Handbook*. A.L.A., 1941, p.22-24.

present the next. Altogether, it is wise to place a temporary signal on the shelf-list card and then wait a while before marking the item "Missing" or "Lost" in traditional red ink.

It should be unnecessary to secure the principal's consent to discard a book. Better practice is blanket authority given the librarian to use her judgment. What busy principal wants to be bothered with such details?

2. **Insurance.** An estimate of the value of library materials for insurance purposes may be requested. The following figures developed by American Library Association insurance committees and by libraries which have made careful insurance studies would, it was thought at the time of issuance, be adequate to protect the library using them:

INSURANCE ESTIMATES²⁸

Adult fiction	\$0.85 per vol.	Reference books	\$3.37 per vol.
Adult nonfiction	1.46 " "	Periodicals (bound)	3.00 " "
Juvenile fiction	.67 " "	Stereographs	.05 " item
Juvenile nonfiction	.67 " "	Mounted pictures	.03 " "

VIII. THE STAFF MANUAL

The values in a staff manual or routine book were discussed briefly in connection with the work of pupil assistants. Such a book is a necessary tool in all larger libraries and may well be considered even in the smaller one. The ideas behind it are: to provide in form convenient for consultation, definite descriptions of routines, policies, and decisions covering practice in the library so that procedures may be kept uniform and consistent; and to make it possible for new or untrained members of the staff, or a new librarian, to carry on with a minimum of lost motion. It is loose-leaf and alphabetical. If in connection with processes described certain forms have been adopted, these are indicated by number or samples are attached. In describing a routine it is well to start with a list of the supplies involved and, if the manual is to be used by untrained assistants, a definition of the process. Following this, directions are given step by step, the final one giving the disposition of the tools used and of the finished product. Suggestive directions can be found in published manuals for student assistants.

²⁸ "Insurance for Libraries." *A.L.A. Bulletin* 38:369-70, October 1, 1944. An article which discusses varied aspects of library insurance and gives figures for a number of additional items not frequently found in school libraries. Pamphlets are omitted. A recent book is: Singer, Dorothea M. *The Insurance of Libraries*. A.L.A., 1946.

STAFF MANUAL—SAMPLE PAGE

PREPARING BOOKS FOR THE SHELVES

Stamping

Tools:

Library ownership stamps no. 1 and no. 2, and ink pad. Kept in drawer of work table.

Where to stamp:

With no. 1 stamp:

- (1) Title page. Cornerwise so as not to interfere with printed information.
- (2) First page of text.
- (3) Page 51. If book has less than 51 pages, stamp the last page.

With no. 2 stamp:

Top and bottom edges of the book, with book closed.

Special directions:

In stamping pages, take advantage of margins and thus avoid obliterating text.

See that stamps are clean. Apply with even pressure so as not to smudge.

When stamping has been completed, pile books on shelf bearing label "Stamped," and replace tools in drawer.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BUSINESS RECORDS AND ROUTINES

DOUGLAS, M. P. *Teacher-Librarian's Handbook*. A.L.A., 1941, chapters 2, 4 and 5.

Concise information about processes such as accessioning and ordering, and simple directions for carrying them out.

GARDINER, JEWEL, and BAISDEN, L. B. *Administering Library Service in the Elementary School*. A.L.A., 1941, chapter 8.

Simple directions for ordering, with illustrations of order forms appropriate for school use.

JOHNSON, F. M. *Manual of Cataloging and Classification for Small School and Public Libraries*. 3d ed., rev. by D. E. Cook. Wilson, 1939.

Routines for accessioning, inventory, and mechanical preparation of books are described. With good planning and the help of pupil assistants, it will not be necessary to close the library for inventory purposes as here suggested.

MORRISON, H. C. *Management of the School Money*. Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1932, p.375-76.

An introduction to business practice in the school which school librarians do well to read.

MOSHIER, L. M., and LEFEVRE, H. S. *The Small Public Library*. A.L.A., 1942. Aimed particularly at the public library, this little manual nevertheless admirably supplements information given in some of the school library manuals listed above.

TRENT, R. M. "Be Kind to Your Book Dealer." *Library Journal* 69:581-82, July 1944.

Practical hints on writing the order letter.

Catalogs of the following supply firms may be consulted for printed forms useful in keeping library records, and for publicity posters, signs, etc.:

Demco Library Supplies, Madison, Wisconsin.

Gaylord Brothers, Syracuse, New York, and Stockton, California.

Library Bureau Division, Remington Rand, Inc., 205 E. 42d Street, New York City. (Branch offices in various other cities.)

REPORTS AND PUBLICITY

FARGO, L. F. *Activity Book for School Libraries*. A.L.A., 1938.

——— *Activity Book Number Two*. A.L.A., 1945.

Publicizing the library through student activities is stressed.

FARR, H. E. "School Librarian's Annual Report." *School Library Association of California (Southern Section) Bulletin* 7:1-3, March 1936.

Includes outline of subjects and suggestions as to style, treatment, and form.

GRADY, MARION. "Publicity for the High School Library." *Library Journal* 64:681-85, September 15, 1939.

Useful suggestions for the use of bulletin boards and display cases, and for publicity through outside agencies, auditorium, radio, student publications, etc.

HENNE, FRANCES. "The Evaluation of School Libraries." In *National Society for the Study of Education. Forty-second Yearbook, Pt. II: The Library in General Education, 1943*, p.343-44. (Distributed by the Department of Education, Univ. of Chicago.)

Under the heading "Library Records in Relation to Evaluation," the author discusses what statistical records to keep and why.

LOIZEAUX, M. D. *Publicity Primer*. 2d ed., rev. Wilson, 1946.

The principles of publicity briefly written.

SHAFFER, V. R. "Advertising the School Library." *Wilson Library Bulletin* 5:572-73, May 1931.

Ideas for reports.

Technical and Mechanical Processes

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|--------------------------------------|--|
| I. Simplified Records | VI. Pamphlets and Clippings |
| II. Job Analysis | 1. The vertical file |
| III. Classification and Cataloging | 2. Classed titles and duplicates |
| 1. Classification | VII. Graphic Materials, Art Objects, etc. |
| 2. Book numbers | 1. The picture file |
| 3. Cataloging | 2. Miscellany |
| 4. Shelf-listing | VIII. Other Visual Materials and Sound Devices |
| 5. Costs | 1. Organizational procedures |
| 6. Substitute and makeshift catalogs | 2. Storage |
| 7. Short cuts | 3. Mechanical apparatus |
| IV. Preparation for Shelving | IX. Repair and Binding |
| 1. Mechanical preparation of books | 1. Audio-visual materials |
| 2. Preparation of the shelves | 2. Repair of books |
| V. Periodicals | 3. Binding |
| 1. Magazines | X. Library Housekeeping |
| 2. Newspapers | |
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I. SIMPLIFIED RECORDS

An important problem involved in organizing school library materials is how to simplify processes and routines without sacrificing efficiency or doing violence to scholarship and standard library practice.

That school library routines should be kept simple needs no argument. Comparatively speaking, the book collection is small; a limited professional staff cannot afford to spend time on records at the expense of personal service; pupils on the way to becoming enthusiastic and intelligent library patrons should not be discouraged and confused by card records too scholarly for their grasp, by unfamiliar phraseology, decimal numbers too long for ease in identification of books, and similar barriers to speed and understanding. On the other hand, libraries grow—often surprisingly;

records that are unduly simple prove inadequate; time stolen from essential record making is time lost when it comes to efficient service; and as pupils progress through school it is important that they should gradually become familiar with adult scholarship as exemplified in bibliographic phraseology and form. Otherwise they do not easily make the transfer from school libraries to public and college libraries.

The pages that follow indicate good practice in simplifying and adapting standard processes to meet school situations and suggest the desirability of employing job analysis in working out new and improved methods.

II. JOB ANALYSIS

It is surprising how frequently most of us are at a loss to answer when someone on the outside asks in connection with our particular job, "Why do you do that?" Too many times the answer is, "I don't exactly know. I guess that was the way I was taught," or "That's the way it was done where I worked before."

The first step to be taken in considering change or adjustment of records and routines is, then, to ask "Why?" or, "What useful purpose is served by this set of figures, this bit of routine?"

If the answers to these questions suggest that nothing is being served but tradition, prompt elimination is demanded. If careful deliberation convinces that some useful purpose is served, the next procedure is to list the steps involved item by item and to begin all over again with a battery of "why's" and "what's": "Why is this step necessary in a school library?" and "What would be lost if it were omitted?" Other questions might deal with materials and use and location of mechanical equipment. Examples: "Would colored cards, signals, or guides facilitate the classification of materials in the pamphlet file?" "Am I repeatedly writing or typing phrases that might more quickly be stamped?" "Am I wasting time ruling cards for check-list purposes when printed cards are available at slight cost?" "Are supplies, stamps, et cetera, available where used or must I do a lot of walking to assemble them?"

Almost invariably, such detailed examination of processes indicates need for changes—slight perhaps, but in the long run worth while because saving in time and effort. Once decided upon, a new procedure is written in the staff manual and put into practice.

Sometimes completely new methods must be evolved to meet situations peculiar to the school or to some new line of work such as the care and

organization of audio-visual materials. Here, as before, purposes must be kept clearly in mind. Once purposes are clarified, search may be made for routines or processes that have worked in other fields. If they appear to be serviceable, they may be adopted; if not, the librarian starts at scratch and invents her own. As a matter of fact, that is just what many librarians have done in recent years to meet situations created by the greatly increased use of pamphlet series, vocational services, records, films and many other things. The school librarian has great need for inventiveness, and a mind quick to see new ways of accomplishing purposes.¹

An important outcome of job analysis is the clear demonstration that many organizational techniques can be best and most economically carried out by a central agency. Ordering, classifying, cataloging and processing for the shelves are now increasingly undertaken by a central office. Everywhere, use is being made of printed catalog cards and other labor-saving devices available through commercial firms that perform for librarians operations which once had to be carried out in the librarian's own workroom. One example is the call numbers which it is possible to have binders stamp on the backs of rebound volumes.

Despite the fact that every school library would profit through centralized service, the existence of the great majority of libraries as independent units makes it essential for each librarian to be competent to carry through most organizational processes on her own and to be aware of adjustments or simplifications of standard practice now widely accepted.

III. CLASSIFICATION AND CATALOGING

1. **Classification.** School libraries almost without exception use the Dewey Decimal Classification. The chief question is not, therefore, what classification shall be used, but whether adaptations shall be undertaken.

Adjustments of the decimal system.—A form of abridgment commonly recommended for small schools, both elementary and high school, carries classification to the second level only. That is, it uses the ten main groupings and but one series of divisions beyond, thus:

500 Science

510 Mathematics

520 Astronomy

¹ For fuller discussion of steps suggested here see: Gates, F. C. "Job Methods for Training in Libraries." *Wilson Library Bulletin* 18:30-33, September 1943. Includes valuable ideas for the efficient arrangement of the workroom.

This would appear to be a safe and authentic procedure for the small school which will presumably remain small, since it provides simplification without doing violence to the basic principles upon which the decimal system rests. But abridgments like the above are open to grave question when the school is large. For example, 380 Commerce covers railroads, ocean commerce, canals, steam navigation, the postal service, the telegraph and other forms of communication. The large school may reasonably expect to collect a goodly number of titles in this group. It is evident that closer classification (383, Postal System; 387, Ships, etc.) is demanded. For most well-organized libraries of any size Dewey's own abridgment of his classification² provides as great a degree of simplification as is desirable.

Adjustment or interpretation of the decimal classification in line with school use of library materials is sometimes undertaken. Thus, the 810's and 820's (English and American literature) are thrown together because the curriculum emphasizes forms of literature rather than national origins; industrial history (609) is classified with straight history (900 and its subdivisions) where it is most likely to be called for; class numbers for all fiction written in English are dropped altogether, the books being arranged on the shelves in straight alphabetical order by author; biographies are classified to stand next to the subject with which the biographee's life is linked, i.e., 759.1 for a book about the American artist, Inness.

Librarians have found to their sorrow that there may be serious dangers in adjustments based on the curriculum. The curriculum is a changing thing, while library records are permanent if for no other reason than that constant reclassifying and recataloging take too much time. While curricular units and curricular vocabulary, especially the latter, are kept in mind when cataloging, serious deviations from standard classification practice are eschewed, at least until time has shown whether or not what appears to be a curricular cyclone is only a passing whirlwind.

The *Standard Catalog for High School Libraries* and the *Children's Catalog*,³ both of which are classified lists, employ widely accepted modifications of the decimal system and so are excellent guides. The first of these titles now follows the original decimal classification more closely than in the past, thus seeming to indicate that in the long run it is better not to tamper with a plan that is standard for the great majority of libraries which pupils use out of school and after graduation. Increasing uniformity

² Dewey, Melvil. *Abridged Decimal Classification*. 6th ed., rev. Wilson, 1945.

³ For full bibliographical entries see bibliography at end of this chapter.

of classification in these two volumes simplifies their use by the librarian in the junior high school where titles from both lists appear.

Outside of the "Standard Catalog" series, classification numbers are to be had from a number of state library lists. These are intended primarily for the assistance of inexperienced or partially trained librarians in small schools and are inadequate guides for large school library collections.

2. Book numbers. For complete identification of a title it is necessary to have not only a class number indicating its subject, but some method of distinguishing it from other volumes in the same class. The need for such identification obviously grows with the size of the book collection. If it is small, a particular title can without much trouble be located within its class by reference to the author's name, usually printed on the spine of the book. In a large collection this is not so easy and libraries may therefore add to the classification number a so-called book or author number—also called a Cutter number from the system of letters and figures from which it is derived.

In the small or elementary school library such numbers are now rather generally omitted. Whether to use them or not in larger high school libraries is a moot question. After stating all the arguments for and against, Mann⁴ comes to the conclusion that the "library of twenty thousand or less would find no difficulty in either method," but suggests as a compromise that book numbers be dropped for fiction but retained for subject matter volumes. A compromise frequently found in school libraries is use of the author's initials only, i.e., 973 for a book on United

B

States history by Bourne. The trouble comes where there is a large collection of general United States histories including titles by Barr, Berry, Blodgett, and so on. The addition of a second letter of the author's name (Bo for Bourne, Ba for Barr) helps, but even this fails to provide accurate identification in all cases.

3. Cataloging.

We must bear in mind the fact that children have no background of experience, that they are unfamiliar with even the terms and expressions commonly known and used by adult readers, and that they are unable to classify material for themselves. Their catalog must therefore be much more an instrument of instruction than is the catalog for adult readers. . . . It must index

⁴ Mann, Margaret. *Introduction to Cataloging and the Classification of Books*. 2d ed. A.L.A., 1943, p.88-89.

chapters in their books . . . and lead them to stories which will tell them about Napoleon, Roland, Iceland, Indians, and any other subjects. . . . We must study their needs as well as their books so that the catalog will come within the range of their understanding and answer their demands.

Our problem is therefore to make a catalog which shall be so simple that we can explain it to children and have them understand it; so full that it will answer not only the demands of children, but those of teachers and assistants as well, and so uniform with other library guides that the child can pass from the use of the one to the other without confusion.

In order to have the catalog supplement the school work, the cataloger must become familiar with the school curriculum. . . . The needs which come through this channel should be anticipated and met even before the actual demand must be answered, as there is little time to collect material after a whole class of children descend upon the library assistant for material on some minute subject.⁵

Objectives and methods.—The high school catalog, like the children's catalog, should also be considered as "an instrument of instruction." It must run so true to form as to make transition to the adult catalog easy, for this is a step in a growing appreciation of the library as the tool of intellectual achievement. It must analyze books not only because certain topics come up in connection with school reference work, but because all boys and girls need the direction in reading which a carefully made catalog supplies. The catalog must come within the range of their understanding, that is, subject headings must not be too technical, (LANGUAGE is better than PHILOLOGY). And yet the catalog must not "talk down." AERONAUTICS is a word worth getting acquainted with; the good catalog does not substitute FLYING. Since the catalog will be used by teachers, it must answer their questions: Is this the call number for the Rolfe edition of Shakespeare? Is *A Dutch Boy Fifty Years After* an abridgment of *The Americanization of Edward Bok*, or is it a different book.

It has been suggested that unorthodox cross references are sometimes necessary and that the librarian may well consult with heads of departments concerning desirable references and analytic cards.

Mann herself has suggested other points worthy of attention: the use of definite and specific terms; the grouping of material by forms and special use, as MYTHS, PLAYS, DRAMATIC READINGS. The perusal of Mann's entire chapter is commended to every prospective cataloger of school library books,

⁵ Mann, Margaret. "The Catalog of Juvenile Books." In her *Subject Headings for Use in Dictionary Catalogs of Juvenile Books*. A.L.A., 1916, p.1-2.

for it embodies an exceedingly valuable point of view, that is, the ideal of simplification combined with adequacy and correct form.

Adjustment to school grade.—There should be, of course, differentiation between the catalog intended for the use of the elementary school and that for the high school. The elementary cataloger may frankly follow the rules for the children's catalog; the junior and senior high school cataloger deals with a field somewhere between the juvenile and the adult. The high school catalog which is a replica of the large public library catalog is not a success. Neither is the one which follows the children's catalog too closely. To avoid Scylla on the one hand and Charybdis on the other, good judgment and careful navigation are needed. Study of the *Standard Catalog for High School Libraries* will be helpful.

Unit cards.—Cataloging is now very generally performed on a unit card basis, a unit card being "one which, when duplicated without change of form, can serve not only as an author card, but also as a subject title, or added entry card."⁶

Printed cards available through the Library of Congress or the H. W. Wilson Company are forms of unit cards widely in use. The Wilson cards are especially adapted to the school library because they are simpler and are reproduced from entries in the Wilson "Standard Catalogs." Accuracy and time-saving are only two of the many advantages of printed cards. Information concerning their cost and how to order them will be sent by both the Library of Congress and the Wilson Company on request. Neither type of card is expensive. Entries on the former are very full, including many bibliographic and other items seldom called for in the school and sometimes a source of confusion to inexperienced pupils. Library of Congress cards do, however, have the advantage of being printed for all titles copyrighted in the United States. Wilson cards are simpler and are available only for titles listed in the Wilson catalogs since 1938. They are sold in sets and may be had with or without decimal classification numbers and subject headings printed on them. Many libraries prefer to add their own class numbers and subject headings in order to meet local conditions or to keep both in line with other cards in the catalog, a number of which will undoubtedly have to be prepared locally.

It is of course possible for the librarian to prepare personally an author card for each title in her library; a unit card which, being duplicated by

⁶ Mann, Margaret. *Introduction to Cataloging and the Classification of Books*. A.L.A., 1943, p.105.

a clerical assistant, serves in precisely the same way as the printed cards just described. Rules and forms for such cards may be found in volumes on cataloging; but adequate cataloging, even with the use of simplified forms, is a professional task not to be attempted by a librarian lacking adequate training.

Centralized cataloging.—Use of unit cards has given great impetus to the centralization of cataloging processes. The unit card for a book ordered by libraries included in a school system is prepared in a central office and duplicated to the extent necessary by whatever method seems most practicable, multigraphing being one. Usually the cataloging is completed in the central office, and a full set of cards including all added entries is delivered to the school along with the book. Sometimes the central office makes and sends to the school several copies of the unit card bearing the call number but not the subject headings; the latter are added by the librarian in the school. Such a cooperative plan saves time for the librarian while allowing desirable freedom in the choice of subject headings according to the needs of the particular school.

Through centralized cataloging, teacher-librarians not prepared to carry on professionally as catalogers are provided with indispensable records; and fully trained librarians are relieved of time-consuming detail. If books are transferred from one school to another, their catalog cards go with them, since basic entries are uniform throughout the system. By and large, disadvantages are few provided the work is carried on by a cataloger familiar with curriculum, pupil vocabulary and needs, and not obligated to duplicate the close classification and elaborate entries of a large public library.

Analyticals.—The school library catalog should have an abundance of analytical entries, for once a young person has learned to use this tool he consults it for many minor subjects. Also, the smaller the library the greater the need to get the utmost from every book. Except for literary writings (plays, short stories, etc.) where the author is outstanding, the greatest demand in the school is for subject and biographical analyticals. In addition to collective biography, Mann lists for analytical treatment the following types of books dealing with miscellaneous subjects or having a general theme possible of division into useful specific headings:

History and description of special places

Collections of essays which have subject value

Natural histories with chapters on birds, fishes, etc.

Collections of holiday material

General descriptive books, including some books dealing with specific subjects: e.g., a book on forestry might have a chapter on Arbor Day; one on mining in South Africa might have a chapter on diamonds; while a book on industries might have chapters on specific industries

Books issued in a series of monographs⁷

All topics emphasized in the curriculum should be given special attention. Since that might mean overloading the catalog with entries of more or less passing value the suggestion has been made that a separate curriculum catalog or index might be better. In view of the Rue (subject) indexes,⁸ this suggestion may now be obsolete in the lower grades. If made in the high school, entries for books may be prepared along with those for the regular catalog although filed separately since the curriculum catalog is primarily an index with headings following curriculum terminology and may include pamphlet titles, audio-visual aids, and so on. Each card gives complete identification. If the card is for a book, the grade for which the title is suited may appear under the call number.

Cross references.—Cross references in the library catalog should be numerous and on occasion unorthodox if that will help the inquiring young person to find what he wants. Very likely he tries BRIDGES rather than CIVIL ENGINEERING and if he finds no entry it may never occur to him that a book on the latter might contain the former. Under older cataloging practice no cross reference would be present to point the way because of the rule that reference must not be made from specific to general.

To meet situations like this, Mann⁹ suggests a general information card which may be so mimeographed that only subject headings need be filled in on the typewriter:

Bridges

Chapters on this subject will often be found
in the books entered under *Civil engineering*.

In a study made by the catalog department of the Los Angeles Board of Education Library,¹⁰ it developed that: (a) while cross references of

⁷ Op. cit., p.153.

⁸ See list, Chapter IV, footnote 13.

⁹ Op. cit., p.151.

¹⁰ School Library Association of California. *Bulletin* 14, no.2, p.21-22, January 1943.

temporary value might well be made, they should be promptly eliminated when the need has passed, e.g., WIRELESS TELEGRAPHY, see RADIO; DAWES PLAN, see EUROPEAN WAR, 1914-18. REPARATIONS. (b) greater differentiation is needed between junior and senior high school catalogs because of the more limited "catalog vocabulary" of the younger group. There is also some indication that homemade cross references in response to curricular needs or prevalent pupil vocabularies might be useful, e.g., FLU, see INFLUENZA. Such adjustments are in line with an observable tendency in all cataloging to make entries conform to the everyday language and thought patterns of the public using the catalog as a tool.

Subject headings.—Subject headings are drawn principally from standard guides such as the Sears *List of Subject-Headings for Small Libraries*¹¹ or the "Standard Catalogs," the latter of which follow the Sears list. As in the case of cross references, additional headings may be drawn from other sources such as the curriculum and added to whatever authority list is being used. Subject headings for fiction should be freely made, those for historical fiction being especially useful in the high school. But to these may be added VOCATIONAL FICTION; ANIMALS—FICTION; AERONAUTICS—FICTION; and so on. Every library will also require special headings to meet its particular needs.

Annotations.—Annotations are valuable in any catalog, but they are supremely so in one intended to encourage self-help. Something to indicate whether the discussion is simple or technical; a clue as to readability; a note connecting the author with another book the boy or girl knows; sequels and sequences;¹² a statement as to contents—these are the things that help, and these should be provided as far as the librarian's time permits. Wilson cards provide annotations for both fiction and nonfiction.

Instruction signs, protection from dirt.—Instruction signs should be provided both within and without the catalog. Library supply firms sell for insertion in catalog trays colored cards headed "How to use this catalog." Larger cards may be posted on or near the catalog case.

A catalog subjected to constant fingering by not too clean hands requires attention to many small but important items. For example, red-top cards show soil less than white ones. Projecting portions of guide cards may

¹¹ For full entry, see bibliography at the end of this chapter. See also Mann, *op. cit.*, p.157-62.

¹² Rue, Eloise. "Series and Sequels." *Wilson Library Bulletin* 15:42-47, September 1940.

be brushed with white shellac, or covered with a specially prepared transparent tape.

4. **Shelf-listing.** The shelf list is primarily a list of books as they stand on the shelves. But the shelf-list card is now so regularly one of the unit cards before mentioned that its preparation is appropriately considered as part of the cataloging process. It may be the first card completed and filed, thereby serving a number of useful purposes in addition to being a location index, a record valuable for inventory purposes, and an aid to classification. Where cataloging is centralized, a *union shelf list* indicates the location of all copies of titles owned by the school system, thus providing a valuable directory.¹³

5. **Costs.** The cost of cataloging, including classification, shelf-listing, etc., has frequently been studied, but so much depends upon the nature of the book collection and the methods used that all figures are subject to modification. Numerous analyticals increase cost; many duplicates and fiction titles lower it; so does centralized cataloging. Perhaps the thirty-four-cent average and the twenty-nine-cent median cost per volume reported in a prewar U.S. Office of Education study¹⁴ provide as accurate an estimate as any for cataloging in the school library field. It is not far removed from the Mann estimate for small public libraries following her useful table on "How To Compute the Cost of Classifying and Cataloging Twenty Thousand Volumes."¹⁵

Considering cataloging as part of the cost of a book has been suggested as a help in securing funds in the school library.

6. **Substitute and makeshift catalogs.** Cataloging being no job for the novice, state school library agencies and librarians interested in the effective organization of school library collections discourage the preparation of catalogs by nonprofessionals. A number of ingenious substitutes have been suggested, chiefly for the isolated small school where the librarian is untrained. They are mentioned because the professional librarian is often asked for advice in such matters by teachers and teacher-librarians.

Checking printed lists.—The library may use classified and indexed lists issued by the state school library agency, the *Standard Catalog for High*

¹³ For forms and further discussion of the uses of the shelf list see Mann, *op. cit.*, p.94-98.

¹⁴ U.S. Office of Education. *Unit Costs in . . . High School Libraries*. The Office, 1941, p.14. (Bulletin no. 11, 1941).

¹⁵ *Op. cit.*, Appendix One, p.264-67.

School Libraries, or the *Children's Catalog*, checking the titles owned and writing in any not included.

Using Wilson printed cards.—If the library has been wise enough to select its book stock largely from the titles included in the two Wilson catalogs mentioned previously, sets of printed cards may be purchased with class numbers and subject headings added. The few books for which printed cards are not available can be given temporary author, title, and subject entry following as far as possible the Wilson form. Such cards typed on colored stock can easily be identified and removed if and when the time comes for more expert cataloging.

Making a shelf list.—After the books are classified according to some simple scheme, the shelf list provided with subject guides (822—Drama, 973—U.S. History, etc.) serves as a subject catalog. It may be supplemented by a curriculum index and a title list for fiction.

Better than any of these plans will be a contractual arrangement for library service including cataloging if a public library is near at hand. An experienced cataloger may be employed to put the initial book collection in order and to care for such additions as are made annually. In some cases, state teachers' colleges and universities have carried on service of this or similar nature.

7. **Short cuts.** Principals, eager to see a new library begin to function educationally without undue delay, and teachers, who have ordered new books in the spring and are eager to put them to use as soon as school opens in the fall, are often baffled and impatient over delays in getting books into service. The answer to their criticisms may be, and probably is, that the librarian should either have more help or be employed and paid on a ten-or eleven-month basis in order to have opportunity for cataloging before school opens.

But assuming that neither of the above solutions is in sight, and that sets of Wilson cards fully ready for filing are not available or have not been ordered, the librarian wisely resorts to short cuts with the object of getting books into circulation at once while temporarily postponing full cataloging.

One way is to classify, accession, and shelf-list only, metamorphosing order cards into temporary shelf-list cards by adding to each the call number and copy or accession numbers. Some libraries do away with an accession book and record accession numbers on the combined order-shelf-list card only. Where this is the case, it is necessary to provide a tally card

on which the last accession number assigned is always carefully recorded.

Books, having been accessioned, classified, and shelf-listed as indicated above, are immediately processed for lending and put into circulation without more ado. The order-shelf-list cards are filed by class number, thus providing a temporary classed catalog. During the year, as opportunity offers, the books are fully cataloged. In connection with the cataloging, some libraries make a new shelf-list record. Others allow the order card to function permanently in that capacity.

Variations of the above routine or other equally practical short cuts must frequently be followed in the short-staffed or one-librarian library if it is not to be closed for cataloging purposes at times when it should be fully functioning, or if books are not to be held from the shelves indefinitely and, from the faculty point of view, exasperatingly.

IV. PREPARATION FOR SHELVING

1. **Mechanical preparation of books.** The processes involved in the preparation of school library books for the shelves are routine and mechanical and are carried out in line with best practice elsewhere; in case the school library is affiliated with a public library, with the practice of that particular institution.¹⁶

If the school library is being reorganized, old books must be sorted and useless or worn-out volumes discarded. Of those remaining, some are sent to the bindery, some are laid aside for cleaning and repairs, and others in good condition are, after old labels have been removed, segregated for treatment like new books. The last involves cutting the leaves; adding marks of ownership in one or more places; providing and installing essential appurtenances of the charging system, such as book cards, book pockets, and date slips; and marking the call numbers in the proper places, especially on the spine of each volume.

In school libraries, marking the ownership ordinarily consists in stamping with a rubber stamp on the edges as well as inside the book. Marking the call number on the spine of the book (labeling) is accomplished by lettering directly on the binding with a pen or an electric stylus and not by attaching labels which offer too many temptations to industrious pocket knives and meddling fingers. New books are not often collated, but mechanical preparation may include careful opening.

¹⁶ These processes are described in detail in titles listed in the bibliography at the end of this chapter.

Some of these processes are among the simplest carried on in the library and so, better than most, may be turned over to pupil assistants. The careful opening and cutting of the pages of a boxful of new books may become a rare privilege as well as an educational opportunity; the removal of old labels and the cleaning of soiled books may be performed as a school service project. Stamping, pasting, writing book cards, and marking represent an ascending scale of skills, most of which may be satisfactorily acquired by pupils working individually or in groups of two or three if the librarian has time to teach and to supervise. Shoddy work should not be tolerated.

2. **Preparation of the shelves.** Preparation of the shelves also follows best library practice. Copious labels are made or purchased, both for the shelves and for the tops of cases; this is exceedingly important where self-help is encouraged. Library supply catalogs may be consulted for examples of label holders.

V. PERIODICALS

1. **Magazines.**

Current issues.—Current issues should be stamped with an ownership mark and provided with the temporary binders offered by library supply houses or made in the library of strong kraft paper. Not to protect magazines is foolish economy, for a periodical worth subscribing for is worth conserving. Protective coverings are made attractive by pasting the picture cover of the magazine over the binder, or by using some form of transparent cover. If magazines are to be circulated, book cards and book pockets are usually provided.¹⁷ Each issue as it appears is checked on a card ruled for the purpose which may be purchased from a library supply firm. Filing these cards in a visible index file rather than a drawer greatly facilitates their use.

After being checked, current magazines should be displayed and not merely stored. Among the several types of racks available that one should be selected which has greatest publicity value even though not as economical of space as a storage rack or cupboard.

¹⁷ For detailed description of methods useful in caring for current issues, see the following as well as titles listed in the bibliography at the end of this chapter:

Bennett, Wilma. *Student Library Assistant*. 2d ed. Wilson, o.p. (New ed. in progress.)

Walter, F. K. *Periodicals for Small and Medium-Sized Libraries*. 7th ed. A.L.A., 1939, p.19-22.

If current issues are routed to faculty members before being made available in the library, a list of available titles is checked by instructors wishing to scan them with the object of noting articles serviceable in classwork. Reports on the success of this method are conflicting. Some librarians are sure that through classroom guidance pupils make far better and more extensive use of magazines. Other librarians point out that a magazine is soon "old stuff" to students; that instructors are slow in returning a current issue; and that delay in its appearance in the library is fatal. Where but one copy is subscribed for, the plan probably works best in connection with special interest magazines, i.e., those not likely to be in much demand outside the home economics kitchen, the commercial department, and so on; and it works least well in the case of magazines of general interest—especially in the field of current events.

The posting of a list of periodicals received by the library, including back numbers or bound volumes available, tends to cut down unnecessary questions at the desk, especially if the list appears in close proximity to the Readers' Guide. The visible periodicals record mentioned earlier may be used in this way. Some school libraries go a step further and add a selective list of periodicals available at the public library.

Back issues.—Back issues are sometimes a problem.¹⁸ It is rather generally assumed that those indexed in the Readers' Guide should be preserved. But for how long and how? Without question, many periodicals become deadwood after a few years, while those of the current year are in steady demand for reference purposes if reference activity is being properly encouraged. Librarians differ as to how long magazines are useful, pointing out that the period varies with the magazine itself. The maximum may be four or five years; the minimum, the six months or so reported by Martin as the library life span of a magazine according to a good many school librarians.¹⁹ It is, however, open to question whether this minimum may not be due in a good many cases to difficulties in handling consequent on inconvenient storage facilities, lack of binding, or the time involved in upkeep of those unbound, or, much more serious, lack of adequate pupil training in the use of magazines for reference purposes. Certainly, until there has been time for experimentation under favorable conditions in the individual school, magazines should not be

¹⁸ "Problems." In *Wilson Library Bulletin* 7:316-19, January 1933. A symposium on the use of back issues of periodicals.

¹⁹ Martin, L. K. *Magazines for School Libraries*. Wilson, 1946, p.46.

discarded after six months. Conversely, they should not clutter the shelves after their period of usefulness has been definitely ascertained.

Binding.—There is a tendency to discourage permanent binding, even for valuable reference titles. When urged purely on the basis of economy it is a question whether, except in the case of the very small or the elementary school library, it is not false economy since the time and effort required to keep unbound issues in order is considerable, storage space must be greatly increased, and wear and tear is far heavier, as is also loss through theft. If, however, the argument is that more pupils can use simultaneously issues not bound but arranged in boxes or on cupboard shelves, the situation is different, for treatment should always be based on service. There is also room for thought in Miss Martin's recommendation²⁰ that only the *National Geographic* and one current events magazine be bound, the former because of its popularity for browsing and the latter because of reduced reference demands after a year and the desirability of experimentation with new titles. Since in the lower grades of the elementary school many magazines not indexed in the *Readers' Guide* may be in use primarily for the stimulation of reading, permanent binding may be definitely unsatisfactory. Instead of heavy bound volumes, individual issues should be available for distribution when a class comes in for its library hour. But the upper-grade pupils of the elementary school are beginning reference workers and the binding of much-used titles is at least worth considering.

Duplicates.—Duplicates and titles not indexed may be clipped, or a single issue or lengthy article may be bound and treated as a pamphlet or book. The same treatment may be given such titles as *Building America*, each issue of which is devoted to a single theme. Duplicate copies of much-used titles are given protective covering and used to supplement bound volumes in times of stress. In a school where there is a steady demand from pupils for pictures and articles to clip for their notebooks, duplicates may be housed in a convenient cupboard along with shears and paste pots. Pupils are allowed to help themselves freely to the contents of this cupboard. Such an arrangement is good psychology; it substitutes privilege for the eternal negative and is one answer to the problem of mutilation, though a better answer was probably that given by the superintendent of schools in one city when he forbade teachers to plan projects involving the use of clippings and pictures.

²⁰ *Op. cit.*, p.17.

Periodicals used as texts.—As suggested in Chapter IX, the administration of periodicals used as texts or laboratory materials may or may not be taken over by the library, depending on how many duplicates are required, the purposes which the periodicals serve, and library responsibility for all materials of instruction. There is, however, much to be said for making the library appropriation for magazines sufficient to cover all subscriptions for single copies even though the periodical is, like the fashion sheets used in sewing classes, required for laboratory use in the classroom. Where the periodical is in general as well as classroom demand, duplicates should be provided for the library.

2. *Newspapers.* Like magazines, newspapers are stamped and their receipt checked on specially ruled cards. In the school library, newspapers are without question the greatest ephemera, “current material of temporary interest and value” to be displayed for a single day, filed for reference for a week or a month, and then clipped or disposed of as waste paper. Duplication for purposes of newspaper study has previously been discussed (Chapter IX).

VI. PAMPHLETS AND CLIPPINGS

1. *The vertical file.* The alphabetical arrangement of pamphlets and clippings by subject in an upright position in filing cases represents the most favored practice, though the pressure for heavily duplicated, up-to-the-minute materials of learning in nonbook form has in recent years become so great as to cause many libraries to resort to other methods of treatment, especially in fields such as vocational education, guidance, social science, and technology.

Items to be filed are stamped with an ownership mark, dated, and provided with subject headings. Following this, they are mounted, dropped into envelopes, or given a protective covering according to condition, probable use, and capacity to stand upright. Subject headings are duplicated on envelopes and occasional guide cards.²¹

Subject headings are derived from a number of sources. A list for use in the elementary school may be found in Gardiner and Baisden’s *Administering Library Service in the Elementary School*.²² In the high school

²¹ For details of these processes see titles suggested in the bibliography at the end of this chapter.

²² Gardiner, Jewel, and Baisden, L. B. *Administering Library Service in the Elementary School*. A.L.A., 1941, p.108-13.

the Readers' Guide often furnishes the headings, and a superseded cumulation is checked to indicate those used. If possible, the library should subscribe for the *Wilson Vertical File Service Catalog* which not only lists current pamphlets worth securing, but also supplies subject headings so that upon receipt of the pamphlet a clerical assistant can prepare it for filing.

In many libraries, pamphlets are consulted as freely by pupils as are books on the open shelves; in others, they are available from the librarian upon request. Usually they can be borrowed by either teachers or pupils for limited periods and are freely available for classroom use. To make sure that their presence in the library is not overlooked, a general reference card is inserted in the catalog.

Airplanes

For additional material on this subject
consult the vertical file.

2. **Classed titles and duplicates.** When pamphlets are closely related to units of the curriculum, or when heavily duplicated, some libraries prefer in place of the subject heading, or in addition to it, to assign a Dewey Decimal number by means of which the pamphlets are shelved in pamphlet boxes just following books on the same subjects.

If duplication is very heavy, or shelf space scarce, workroom cupboards or pigeonholes may be used for storage, the arrangement being alphabetical by author or title rather than by subject or class. If instead of being independent items the pamphlets belong to numbered or dated series, treatment may follow that accorded magazines, i.e., the pamphlets are checked according to date or series number. In all cases, indication of their presence in the library is given in the catalog, presumably through some form of general reference card. Also, attention is called to them in bibliographies.

Frequent weeding of the pamphlet and clipping collection is essential, for most items are correctly designated as ephemera. Stamping the date when received in an upper corner greatly facilitates weeding.

VII. GRAPHIC MATERIALS, ART OBJECTS, ETC.

1. **The picture file.** The treatment of unframed pictures, photographs, drawings and other materials described in Chapter IX as making up the picture file is not unlike that accorded clippings and pamphlets except

that there is more necessity for mounting. In fact, in smaller libraries, pictures and pamphlets are not infrequently arranged together in the same file. But since picture mounts are larger than the general run of pamphlets, a separate file may be more satisfactory. Another reason for separation is that grouping by broad subject field—ANIMALS, COSTUMES, MEDIEVAL ART—may work better with pictures than the more specific headings used in the pamphlet file.

Detailed directions for the treatment of picture file materials are to be found in many volumes dealing in a general way with the organization of school library materials as well as in the selected titles following this chapter. In determining procedures it is important not to be misled by descriptions of elaborate methods and materials appropriate for large libraries only, particularly those whose files are filled with valuable reproductions of works of art. For the most part, items placed in the school library picture file are too inexpensive to deserve such treatment. Until experience shows which ones are going to get hard usage, pictures clipped from magazines, etc., may be dropped unmounted into envelopes from which they can be slipped temporarily into celluloid holders when sent to the classroom. More valuable items are mounted at once, though here again good sense suggests the use of inexpensive but durable materials often available through the school supply warehouse, and simple gummed labels available from a dime store. An inexpensive paper cutter with a blade not less than 12 inches in length will save hours of time and assure better results than the best of shears. Like pamphlets, pictures are provided with subject headings under which they are arranged alphabetically in the file. They are circulated primarily to teachers or to classrooms, though pupils preparing illustrated talks or needing pictures in connection with art projects may also borrow them.

2. **Miscellany.** The desirability of making the library a clearinghouse through which all educational materials used in the school may be located, whether housed in the library or not, has been frequently suggested. Among such materials are maps, framed pictures, and museum and art objects.

Maps fall into three categories: globes, relief maps, and flat maps. The first two are important enough to be accessioned and listed under subject in the curriculum catalog if not classified and cataloged like library books, and the same is true of wall maps unless they are so manufactured as to be folded and treated as vertical file material.

Framed pictures, art objects, etc. should be similarly cataloged or listed in order that they too may function as instruments of curriculum enrichment and not alone as decorative objects.

VIII. OTHER VISUAL MATERIALS AND SOUND DEVICES

1. **Organizational procedures.** As yet, no "standard practice" for handling sound devices and visual materials not already discussed exists. Most of them are mechanically operated and, aside from sheet music and possibly records, cannot be placed in the ordinary vertical file. Since they represent considerable expenditure, are not ephemera, frequently take the place of books, and in their containers or protective coverings can be treated for organizational purposes much like books or sets of books, the general tendency is to deal with them in just that way, i.e., to provide them with ownership marks, accession them, classify, shelf-list and catalog.²³

Whether the catalog entries for these audio-visual materials should be incorporated into the general library catalog may be open to question. Some prefer a separate catalog with headings more nearly following the curriculum and referred to through cross references in the main catalog: "ENGINES:—For additional material on this subject consult the catalog of audio-visual materials under: DIESEL ENGINES; LOCOMOTIVES." If, however, a combined catalog is decided upon, special symbols or stamps are used to indicate the nature of the audio-visual item—whether a film, film-slide, record, or something else. In any case, the catalog card should provide descriptive annotations indicating length, curricular uses, nature of the commentary, etc.; in short, as much information as possible for the user who may have to select without having had an opportunity to view or to listen.

2. **Storage.** Unlike books, most audio-visual aids cannot safely be left in the open but must be placed in proper containers and then stored in locked closets or cabinets especially constructed for the purpose. In the case of films or filmstrips, a comparatively cool place is necessary. The cans in which they are enclosed are supplied with call numbers or other identification by which they can be arranged in rows in special cabinets or on narrow shelves set close together. Where sets of slides on the same subject arrive in a special filing box, the boxful may be cataloged and otherwise recorded as a single item. The classification number or other identi-

²³ For routines followed in various libraries see titles listed at the end of this chapter.

fication appears on the container and on the items within which are also numbered consecutively to aid in checking. Thus "942-10" would indicate the tenth in a boxful of historical slides on Great Britain. Records and recordings are cataloged individually or like volumes in a set and are supplied with call numbers or other identification before being placed in pigeonholes or special files.

Many of the above materials are accompanied by teachers' guides which give excellent suggestions as to use and provide bibliographies. A vertical file seems a logical receptacle for these. Where possible, they should be lent to teachers in advance of films.

3. Mechanical apparatus. Projectors, phonographs and the like are equipment for which the library may be responsible in much the same way as it is responsible for filing cases and the loan desk. But with this difference: the audio-visual apparatus must usually be transferable to other parts of the building. Accordingly, the library becomes responsible for an inventory record and for putting into operation some scheme for scheduling and lending. The latter can be taken care of through cards similar to those used for pamphlets (Chapter XIV) which are dropped into the circulation file.

IX. REPAIR AND BINDING

1. Audio-visual materials. The repair and maintenance of audio-visual materials such as films requires considerable expertness and aside from minor repairs and adjustments is best carried out in a central workshop unless guaranteed by a local dealer from whom the apparatus was purchased. Where the school system does not provide a central repair shop, some member of the library staff may be given charge of repairs, though a more usual arrangement probably consists in delegating the work to an instructor or a squad of pupils working under an instructor.

2. Repair of books. Purchasing books in reconstructed bindings (see Chapter XI, "Procedures in Ordering") is the best method for cutting down repair work, and many schools consistently buy in such bindings. Next in importance is the old adage about the stitch in time. All members of the staff should be expected to spot "sick" books and either give first aid (mending small tears, tipping in loose pages) on the spot or lay the volume aside for more extensive treatment by someone who knows how. Pupils should also be trained to call the attention of the librarian to volumes needing repair.

It is the custom of some central school offices supplying free texts to send out repair crews who visit school buildings at stated intervals and repair the accumulation of damaged books. Where these crews are made up of skilled workers, where their visits are frequent enough, and where library standards and specifications are set up and enforced by skilled supervisors, the plan has worked satisfactorily. But as a rule the work is not up to library requirements and is too infrequently done. For the most part school librarians not connected with a central system must repair their own books with such aid as they can secure from assistants whom they train and supervise. Experiments have been made with repairing by untrained groups of pupils; but this is not a success. Excellent book repairing is an art, and damages resulting from unskilled labor are irreparable because they leave the book unfit for rebinding.

The school librarian is under constant temptation, if not pressure, to use regulation school supplies in repair work, since these are easily available and often less expensive than library supplies because they are bought in quantity. There is no reason why they should not be employed when they are up to library standards. Unfortunately, many are not. Paste is cheap and cracks; paper is stiff, and the cloth furnished for backs is neither soft nor durable. If the librarian does not know what the standards are, recourse should be had to a manual on library repair work.

3. **Binding.** Binding is a bugbear to many school librarians who must arrange for it independently of a public library or a central school library office. Lucky is the one whose responsibility is ended when the book has been removed from circulation and sent in to the central agency.

One of the difficulties encountered by the independent worker is the tendency in the school to send library books to a local bindery or to a textbook bindery maintained by the school district, neither of which is set up for satisfactory library work. To meet this situation it will be necessary for the school librarian to make sure first of all that she knows what is involved in "Class A" library binding and to be familiar with the standards followed by "certified binders."²⁴

Rebinding worn library books is a specialized business and when it appears that the local bindery does not or cannot meet approved standards,

²⁴ "Class A" binding meets standards set forth in the Minimum Specifications promulgated by the Joint Committee of the American Library Association and the Library Binding Institute. Binderies qualifying under the certification plan of the committee are known as "certified binders" and make a point of publicizing their status as such.

it may be well to have two or three volumes bound by a certified bindery for purposes of comparison. If prices are likewise compared, it usually turns out that "Class A" binding costs little if any more in terms of money, and in terms of wear and attractive appearance has everything to recommend it. There is also to be considered much saving in librarian time since "Class A" specifications call for cleaning, collation, and mending by the binder. Books with inside margins too narrow, pages missing, or other defects inimical to binding will be returned unbound unless marked "Bind as is," while folded maps, charts, and so forth will be given special mounting before being sewed. In the case of periodicals, the binder will endeavor to supply missing numbers. In passing, it may be noted that cover materials will be attractive, long wearing and washable, and that expensive leather will be avoided.

A *well-thought-out routine* helps to make binding go satisfactorily. It involves:

A. For Books

1. A preliminary "once over" to ascertain whether the book is worth rebinding
2. Tying together volumes or sets
3. Preparation of specific instructions for the binder covering call number, form for author and title, volume number. (General instructions may be given in letter to binder, or blank forms furnished by binder may be filled out)
4. Preparation of a check list
5. Letter to binder
6. Packing

B. For Periodicals

1. Preliminary "once over" as for books
2. Collation — not page by page, but number by number with search for those missing. (Many binders furnish missing numbers on request)
3. Arrangement in volume order, addition of title pages and indexes, tying up
4. Preparation of specific instructions for binder, i.e., volume number, date, form for title
5. Same as 4 above
6. Same as 5 above
7. Same as 6 above

Added to this routine is the necessity in the school for securing an order

or requisition number, or arranging for transmission of the books and letters of instruction through the central school office.

The ideal is to send books to the bindery at frequent intervals so that they may not be long out of service. But in the school this may not be possible. Binding should, however, be sent out at least twice per school year, say at Christmastime and in the summer. This distributes the labor of preparation, and catches books that are returned from many quarters just before a vacation, putting them in the hands of the binder at a time when they are not needed for service. The binder may be instructed to hold summer binding for fall delivery so that the librarian may be on hand to do the checking.

Binding has been experimented with as a crafts project in schools where taught as a regular subject in the curriculum. But there are snags. One is uncertainty. Nobody knows in advance how many pupils will be in the class, how fast they will work, and at just what time in the year actual binding may be undertaken. In the meantime, books which should be in service pile up. Another difficulty is uneven workmanship. This plan is not recommended unless a better method is impossible.

X. LIBRARY HOUSEKEEPING

A good deal of work around every library may be described as house-keeping. Not that the librarian does janitor work, nor that she undertakes mechanical tasks which can be performed as well by someone else. But the good librarian has eyes that see and hands that adjust and straighten almost without thinking. Now it is a row of books ready to fall because someone has forgotten to push up a bookend. Two or three quick motions and the shelf is in order. Here it is a pile of magazines rapidly becoming dog-eared. The librarian spots them and they are turned over to an assistant for repairs. Perhaps it is a torn window shade that offends the eye. A note to the janitor takes care of that. An open catalog tray discloses badly soiled cards. They are removed for copying. Books are not allowed to accumulate in untidy piles in the workroom. Each pile is in order on a shelf labeled "To mend," or "Bindery," or "Waiting Wilson Cards." Everything has its place—and pupil assistants as well as others know and respect that fact. Whirlwinds of pupils and teachers sweep through the library hourly; but always the place comes clean again at the first breathing spell. It is order and system and good-natured vigilance that does it—not temper and scolding.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Letters in parentheses (E) (J) (S) indicate grade level at which the book is most useful: elementary school, junior high, senior high. (T) indicates simple manual for the teacher-librarian. Titles followed by no symbol are of general usefulness.

GENERAL MANUALS (WITH CHAPTERS ON SPECIAL PROCESSES)

BENNETT, WILMA. *The Student Library Assistant*. Wilson, o.p. (New ed. in process) (S)

Instructions given here for the carrying out of library processes will be useful in training assistants and writing up the staff manual.

DAVIS, W. L. *Pictorial Library Primer*. Demco Library Supplies, 1944. (T)

Many excellent illustrations make this an exceptionally helpful manual for the inexperienced librarian or teacher-librarian.

DOUGLAS, M. P. *Teacher-Librarian's Handbook*. A.L.A., 1941. (T)

The organization of the library covered step by step for the inexperienced librarian or the teacher engaged in library work. Includes an abridged outline of the decimal classification, an alphabetical subject list, a sample accession record, and instructions for ordering, organization, and processing of books, periodicals, pamphlets, and pictures.

GARDINER, JEWEL, and BAISDEN, L. B. *Administering Library Service in the Elementary School*. A.L.A., 1941. (E) (T)

The simple directions for ordering, organizing and processing books, periodicals, pamphlets, and pictures (chapters 8-10) will be appreciated by all elementary school librarians.

MOSHIER, L. M., and LEFEVRE, H. S. *The Small Public Library*. A.L.A., 1942.

Although designed primarily for use in small public libraries, discussion (chapter 6) of technical and mechanical procedures will be useful to the school librarian.

NOTE: A number of state school library agencies issue gratis excellent manuals for the use of teacher-librarians in organizing small libraries. If there is such an agency in your state, write requesting a copy of the manual.

CLASSIFICATION AND CATALOGING

AKERS, S. G. *Simple Library Cataloging*. 3d ed. A.L.A., 1944.

"An adequate answer to the question of a simplified catalog code for small libraries." With over a hundred sample cards, and information about the use of Wilson cards. Not as comprehensive as Mann (see below) but excellent for the school library.

Children's Catalog. 6th ed., rev. Wilson, 1941. (E) (J) (7th ed. announced.)

A dictionary catalog and a classified list containing all information essential to ordering. Can also be used as a guide in classifying, cataloging, and

subject heading. All titles for which Wilson printed cards are available are indicated. Supplements issued annually, for four years following publication of the main volume are available without extra charge. Sold on service basis. Cutter-Sanborn, 3-Figure Alphabetic Order Table. Library Bureau, n.d.

A table by which book numbers are assigned. To be purchased only if such numbers are in use.

DEWEY, MELVIL. Decimal Classification. 14th ed., rev. Wilson, 1942. (S)

——— Abridged Decimal Classification. 6th ed., rev. Wilson, 1945.

Only the very largest libraries will need the first title. The Abridged Decimal Classification is recommended for all school librarians except (a) extremely small ones in charge of teacher-librarians who may resort instead to schemes outlined in manuals and handbooks particularly designed for them, and (b) elementary libraries which prefer the Outline of Classification given in the Children's Catalog.

JOHNSON, M. F. Manual of Cataloging and Classification for Small School and Public Libraries. 3d ed., rev. by D. E. Cook. Wilson, 1939.

In spite of minor inaccuracies, a useful little manual particularly helpful in connection with the adaptation of Wilson printed cards.

MANN, MARGARET. Introduction to Cataloging and the Classification of Books. 2d ed. A.L.A., 1943.

"Not a manual . . . but an approach based on present practice. Tells what the catalog is, where it leads, what service it can give. Examines the underlying principles governing the systematic arrangement of books on the shelves. . . . Much useful information on the adaptation of the L.C. unit card, and use of the new Wilson cards for . . . school libraries." Not a first purchase for the school library, but a valuable reference work.

SEARS, M. E., ed. List of Subject Headings for Small Libraries. 5th ed., rev. Wilson, 1944. (J) (S)

A standard guide needed in all but very small high school libraries.

SMITH, E. S. Subject Headings for Children's Books. A.L.A., 1933. (E) (J)

May not be needed if the library is using the Children's Catalog as a guide, but its discussion of principles and of the children's catalog as such make it a useful volume.

Standard Catalog for High School Libraries. 4th ed. Wilson, 1942. (5th ed. announced for 1947.) (J) (S)

A dictionary catalog and a classified list containing all information essential to ordering. Like the Children's Catalog (above) with which it can be used, is an excellent guide in classifying, cataloging, and subject-heading. Titles for which printed Wilson cards are available are indicated and a list of sources for pictures is included. Semiannual supplements are included in the price of the main edition. Sold on service basis.

NOTE: The general manuals listed earlier all contain simple directions for classifying and cataloging useful to the teacher-librarian and often suggestive or the fully trained librarian looking for simple methods suited to the school.

PAMPHLETS AND CLIPPINGS

IRELAND, N. O. Pamphlet File in School, College, and Reference Libraries. Faxon, 1937. "Useful Reference" series.

A comprehensive guide to organization and care.

OVITZ, D. G., and MILLER, Z. K. Information File in Every Library. Latest ed. Remington Rand Library Bureau. (Gratis)

Useful little illustrated pamphlet telling how to organize a vertical file.

Vertical File Service Catalog. Wilson. (J) (S)

A list of current pamphlet publications arranged under subject headings useful in filing. Monthly, with quarterly and annual cumulations. Sold on service basis.

WENMAN, L. M., and BALL, M. O. Subject Headings for the Information File. 6th ed., rev. Wilson, 1946. "Modern American Library Economy" series. (S)

Useful in any library, but can be omitted if the school library subscribes to the *Vertical File Service Catalog* or uses headings found in the *Readers' Guide*. Includes addresses of agencies dispensing supplies.

PICTURES

GILBERT, CHRISTINE. "The Picture Collection in the Lincoln School Library." *Library Journal*, 15:34-37, September 1940.

Detailed, practical methods for the school library which has limited space and cannot spend much time on processing but must provide for heavy use of a large collection.

GRAY, J. "Mounting Pictures for Projection Use." *Wilson Library Bulletin* 15:765, May 1941.

A discussion of the problems in using pictures in projection machines.

MINSTER, MAUD. "Nine Steps to the Simplified Picture File." *Wilson Library Bulletin* 15:831-32, June 1941.

Practical procedures briefly outlined.

MOFFATT, J. V. "The Picture Collection in the Hill School Library. *Library Journal* 68:65-9, January 15, 1943.

The methods used in selecting, processing, and circulating this very large collection of mounted pictures will be of interest to all school librarians although probably too elaborate for smaller libraries.

NOTE: Simple instructions for organizing the picture file are given in most, if not all, the general manuals previously listed.

AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS OTHER THAN PICTURES

GREER, M. R. "The Library and Its Care and Use of Films." *Wilson Library Bulletin* 13:383-87, February 1939.

Practical hints on how to organize and care for films. Includes suggestions for makeshift storage facilities.

KIRK, MARGUERITE, and others. "Other Aids to Learning." In National Society for the Study of Education. Forty-second Yearbook, Pt. II: The Library in General Education. 1943, p.176-212. (Distributed by the Department of Education, Univ. of Chicago.)

Completely practical discussion of all types of audio-visual aids, with information on sources, organization, costs, appliances, storage and so on. Extensive bibliography.

U.S. Office of Education. School Use of Visual Aids; by C. M. Koon. The Office, 1938. (Bulletin no.4, 1938)

Deals primarily with the educational use of visual aids, but includes valuable discussion of types as well as occasional hints on organization and care.

MCDONALD, G. D. Educational Motion Pictures and Libraries. A.L.A., 1942.

The appendices of this volume tell how films may be cataloged, cared for, and stored, particularly in a film center. Routines and forms employed by a number of libraries are suggestive of methods for the school.

MCCABE, E. M. "Library and Audio-Visual Aids." *California School Library Association Bulletin* 11:1-3, March 1940.

Describes the administration of audio-visual aids centralized in the school library.

MILLER, P. L. "Cataloging and Filing of Phonograph Records." *Library Journal* 62:544-46, July 1937.

Classification and arrangement of records and the information required on catalog cards are discussed and sample cards given.

BINDING AND REPAIR

FOSTER, M. E. "Conserving Book Collections in School Libraries." *Library Journal* 68:136, February 1, 1943.

Hints on the binding and repair of books for younger children are particularly useful.

In addition to binding instructions found in general manuals, attention is called to a series of very practical articles by Pelham Barr appearing in the *Library Journal* as follows:

"Binding Instructions Save Time, Money, Books." *Library Journal* 68:440, May 15, 1943.

"Criteria for Decisions to Bind." *Library Journal* 68:592, July 1943.

"Answers to Binding Questions Today." *Library Journal* 68:736ff, September 15, 1943.

Brief manuals have also been put out by Gaylord Brothers, Syracuse, New York and Stockton, California, and by Remington Rand Library Bureau Division, New York City. Sometimes o.p., but gratis when available.

Attendance

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I. OBJECTIVES IN PLANNING FOR ATTENDANCE

Few library aims discussed earlier can be reached, and few of the activities carried out, unless pupils have frequent and extended access to the library. The outstanding objective in planning for attendance is, then, to get as many as possible into the library as often as possible.

Naturally there are limitations on this aim. Attendance must not be pushed to the point of overcrowding; time must be allowed the library staff to carry on essential organizational processes; primarily, pupils should come to the library for library purposes and not merely because seating them there offers an administrative economy through casting the librarian in the dual role of book expert and study hall teacher.

II. POINTS OF VIEW

In the last analysis there are two ways by which library attendance on the part of all may be secured: (a) by publicizing the library and making attendance so desirable that everybody will be eager to come; (b) by scheduling in such a way that all will be sure to arrive there at stated intervals.

Both methods have their advocates. Librarians perhaps more frequently than principals favor the first method. They are of the opinion that in a library where scheduling prevails, the librarian frequently finds it difficult

to function as an expert, becoming "an auxiliary teacher rather than a specialist in reference and readers' advisory work."¹ Many are also of the opinion that library experiences on the part of pupils which are voluntary or motivated by challenging classroom problems bear better fruit than those which are routine or forced. They point to the fact that any librarian worthy of the name can make the hours pupils spend in the atmosphere of books such real events that there is seldom trouble in securing a full house. Rather, what difficulty there is lies in apportioning opportunity fairly in view of limited accommodations.

On the other hand, principals faced with the management of large groups turn naturally to scheduling. In the elementary school, at least up to the sixth or seventh grade, pupils constituting each grade customarily move as a unit, or as a section of the same unit, from one learning situation to another. Accordingly, it is administratively simple to provide in the weekly schedule for stated "library periods" when the class or the section is brought to the library as a homogeneous learning group. At the sixth-grade level or above, where departmentalization begins, pupils move in groups according to the subjects they are pursuing; and again it is comparatively simple to schedule the English class or the history class as a unit for a fixed number of regularly recurring library periods.

If the school is operating on a supervised or "directed" study plan in which class periods are few and long, leaving pupils little if any free time, such scheduling may be the only way of getting them into the library except as they may be dismissed from the classroom individually to pursue special assignments. Without careful planning, a promising school library can be reduced to little better than bookroom status through the inauguration of supervised study. Truckloads of books shuttle back and forth between library and classrooms, but only rarely during the school day do pupils arrive either as individuals or as classroom committees.

In view of the reluctance of some teachers in charge of supervised study to dismiss pupils from the classroom to gain library experience, or to take them there as a class group, the possibility of so arranging the daily program as to leave free periods during which pupils may visit the library voluntarily may well be considered.

Under more common plans of organization in the high school, individuals have one or more free periods daily and the possibilities of voluntary

¹ Smith, M. M. *Service Load of High School Librarians*. Columbia University School of Library Science, 1941. (Thesis)

attendance are good. Still, the principal may prefer scheduling—perhaps not in groups, but individually, each pupil being required to indicate on his weekly program card his intention of spending certain definite periods in the library.

To many, some form of scheduling appears to be not only the most practicable but the fairest and most certain method of making sure that every individual in the school is at least exposed to library influence. Often, the library lacks the seating capacity to accommodate all who for one reason or another might like to spend their free time there. At the same time, many reluctant readers may never enter library doors unless required to do so. Once inside, however, such readers may quickly acquire a changed attitude.

Perhaps the best way to form an intelligent opinion as to the relative merits of the plans outlined above and to develop a satisfactory *modus operandi* will be to review the activities for which attendance must provide and then examine critically the methods and devices commonly employed to furnish generous library opportunity and to distribute it fairly.

III. PROVIDING FOR ACTIVITIES

1. **Free reading and exploration.** So much has been said about the need to encourage reading and exploration according to the pupil's interest that repetition is unnecessary. Under most plans for group scheduling in the elementary school this objective is important. The weekly or biweekly library hour is a "free reading" period. Accompanied to the library by teachers, pupils go to the shelves or the magazine rack to browse, select, and read out of personal choice, though with guidance from teacher and librarian. Before leaving, the pupils return books withdrawn for home reading during an earlier visit and borrow new ones sampled during the period. How well the free reading plan succeeds depends not a little on the interpretation put on the situation by teacher and librarian. Guidance must be unobtrusive; the atmosphere of freedom should not be violated by too much formal attendance checking, assigning of seats, and prohibitions on the sharing of books and pictures; varied activities social in nature must be encouraged.

So far, so good. But thoughtful educators believe that class use of the library in the elementary school is not enough. They hold that children should also be allowed to come to the library as individuals both for the browsing type of reading and for reference work. A publication of the

New Jersey State Department of Education² suggests that not only should pupils be allowed to utilize the library in this way before and after school, but the privilege should be extended to school hours and "not limited to those who have 'finished their work' because then the slow learner who may need the library most can never use it." It is added that, if some cannot be trusted to visit the library alone, they should be taught how to accept and deserve the privilege. Observation encourages the conclusion that, in too many elementary schools, opportunity for individual library attendance is seldom being afforded. This is a situation definitely to be decried.

In the high school, as in the elementary school, it is also an open question whether there is as much voluntary reading and free and independent exploration by individuals under scheduled as under voluntary attendance. The tendency is the other way since the mere fact of having to come tends to create a stereotyped situation. However, if the library is open before and after school and during the noon hour, and a resourceful librarian is on hand during scheduled periods to see that the atmosphere is kept friendly and informal, much unfettered exploration and reading may still result.

2. **Assigned reading and reference.** Pupils having definite assignments must have assured opportunity to work in the library. One method is to schedule the class for a fixed number of laboratory periods in the library each week. Instructors accompany the class to supervise the solving of reference problems by some individuals while others settle down for forty minutes or so of required collateral reading. Under this plan the pupil has no chance to report in class that he could not cover his assignment because the book was not available or that he could not find a seat because the library was full. However, he loses the educational experience of planning his own study schedule and of working independently. An objection to scheduling classes to the limit of library capacity is that a room filled throughout the day with such groups provides little or no opportunity for personal research or for that reading which may have been stimulated unexpectedly through classroom or school activities and which should be followed up while the interest is there. The time for Mary White to look up and to withdraw Sara Teasdale's poems is just after someone has read "The Voice" in convocation, firing Mary with a great desire to see that poem in print and to read more by the same author. Any library attend-

² New Jersey State Department of Education. *Elementary School Bulletin* no. 8, 1943



Robert Gordon, Newark, N. J.

Collaboration enhances reference work



George E. Meyers Inc., Hartford, Conn.

Junior high school students use the library for independent study

Pupils come freely from study halls and classes



ance program which requires a pupil to wait until the close of school or until the next day to go to the library defeats its own ends.

Plans for limiting rather than for scheduling attendance can prevent the overcrowding which shuts out the pupil bent on preparing an assignment, while providing opportunity for the individual who has no definite assignment but who comes as the result of an intellectual urge or because the prospect of half an hour or more in the company of books has a tremendous pull. It is also possible to arrange for combinations of scheduled and voluntary attendance. Through conference, teachers and librarian make plans for accommodating occasional class groups while guarding against the total elimination of individual readers. A library classroom or audio-visual room is desirable for such occasions, but in the absence of such accommodations, the main reading room can still be made to suffice for both groups.

3. **Instruction in the use of books.** If the library suite includes auxiliary rooms in addition to the reading room there will be little difficulty in arranging for library lessons. Schedules are worked out with the help of teachers or department heads, and arriving groups go to the unit of the library suite designated for their use. Otherwise the reading room may have to be vacated, in which case advance announcement should always be made so that pupils not enrolled in the library instruction class can plan accordingly.

IV. LIBRARIAN LOAD

Just as it is unfair to pupils to encourage attendance to the point of overcrowding, it is unfair to overload the librarian to the point where efficient functioning is impossible.

Overloading may easily come in any school where either scheduled or voluntary attendance is the rule and a professional library staff of one is expected to meet and work with a new group every period during the day with no chance to relax or to think or act constructively in connection with the administrative phases of her job. Like a teacher, the librarian needs at least one free period in which to collect her wits, think about plans, carry on bibliographic work, and engage in conferences. To accomplish this, a member of the faculty may be scheduled to substitute for the librarian, or in her temporary absence from the reading room, routine and management may be turned over to pupil assistants or service groups.

V. THE LIBRARY STUDY HALL

Another cause of overloading is the use of the library as a study hall.

The necessity for a study hall in the school grows out of two principal facts: legal obligation on the part of the school to account for and maintain control of the pupil at all times of the day instead of turning him loose between classes as in a college; and the need for a place within the school building where study can be carried on in a favorable environment under controlled conditions.

The first fact makes study hall attendance compulsory; the second places an obligation on the school to see that conditions conducive to effective study are maintained and that study activity is efficiently directed. Unfortunately in the past, and to much too large an extent in the present, the obligation of the school to direct study has been overlooked, study halls often being little more than corrals into which pupils are herded with a teacher in charge to crack a disciplinary whip and take attendance.

In writing of the study hall, Logasa points out³ that this is not as it should be; that the educational function of the room is to teach pupils study habits and efficient procedures including the effective handling of reference tools, thus at once suggesting that the relationship between library and study hall is so close that they may very well be combined.

As an ideal to be worked toward, this suggestion has much to recommend it and in actual practice is frequently tried. Before such an arrangement is adopted the question of librarian load should be examined together with a number of other matters including librarian function.⁴ Except in the small school, the compulsory nature of study hall attendance brings in hourly large groups of pupils whose chief business is textbook study. To facilitate the checking of attendance, seats are assigned. Calls from the office and other departments of the school are numerous and must be efficiently responded to. Order must be maintained; and, if the newer conception of the study hall teacher's duties prevails, much time must be given to the supervision of study habits and to personal aid in the processes involved.

It is difficult to keep such situations from becoming formal and stereotyped. With a full house all day long making constant demands on her time, how can a librarian attend to the professional duties which constitute

³ Logasa, Hannah. *The Study Hall*. Macmillan, 1938.

⁴ For fuller discussion of the many angles of library—study hall combinations see suggested list of readings at the end of this chapter.

her first obligation? She cannot except in the small school or in a larger school where clerical and educational assistance is freely provided, for the attendance load is too heavy and the duties of study hall teachers are too numerous and too compelling.

Some suggested solutions of the library-study hall problem in the large school are:

(a) Locate the library close to or adjoining the study hall with a teacher on hand to supervise study habits and look after other essential duties including arrangements for frequent and easy movement between the two rooms.

(b) Combine the library and study hall under the general direction of the librarian and provide adequate clerical help and the expert assistance of teachers qualified to supervise and direct study as well as to keep order. Even under such favorable conditions it is often extremely difficult to maintain the atmosphere of freedom which characterizes effective library activity.

(c) Place in the study hall, as a permanent loan from the library, a duplicate collection of selected general reference books useful as first aid in study: volumes through which the pupil may check spelling, geographic information, statistics, the use of words foreign and native,⁵ important facts and people. Adding a few magazines to prevent mere time killing and to encourage desirable reading may also be worth while. In short, extend the library into the study hall. In some large high schools where study halls are organized on a class basis, required reading for freshmen has occasionally been placed in the freshman study hall, for the sophomores in the sophomore study hall, and so on.

(d) Utilize some part of the library reading room or a room adjoining as an honor study hall managed largely by pupils and limit attendance to individuals willing to take upon themselves the duties of good citizenship which such arrangements emphasize. It should not be forgotten that pupil self-government in a study hall library helps to make the combination work smoothly.

In the small school, an out-and-out library-study hall combination has good chances of success if attendance does not exceed the number of pupils a competent librarian may be expected to serve effectively while carrying on essential study hall duties or if a section of the study hall is used as a library alcove (see p.223). In this connection it is interesting to note

⁵ Logasa, *op. cit.*, p.67-68.

a recent study which indicates that in actual practice the number of schools using the library as a study hall decreases as enrollment increases.⁶

VI. OTHER USES OF THE LIBRARY

Because of crowded conditions in the school, or failure to grasp the real purposes of the library, school administrators sometimes schedule library quarters for classroom use, for tests, and for miscellaneous school activities. In these situations the librarian should ascertain whether such use of library facilities is unavoidable. If it is not, the educational loss in so curtailing library services should be brought tactfully to the attention of those responsible.

Another unfortunate use of the library is as a detention room. This is in line with old and thoroughly discredited disciplinary devices such as requiring an offender to remain after school to memorize a beautiful poem. The net result was to make the pupil hate the poem. To use the library as a place of punishment has a like effect; it suggests that reading and all the library stands for represent unpleasant tasks. It puts the librarian in the objectionable position of jailer.

VII. METHODS OF CHECKING AND LIMITING ATTENDANCE

Because the school must account for pupils, verifying their attendance in the library is essential. This is comparatively simple when pupils arrive in scheduled groups but becomes more complicated when attendance is voluntary and must not only be checked against study hall or home room rolls, but must frequently be limited because of lack of space.

1. Checking scheduled attendance.

Of groups.—The devices for checking attendance by groups are those in common use by teachers. Seats may be assigned and a chart prepared for each period showing pupil stations. All the checker need do is to note vacancies, then pupils are free to leave their seats and move about. A pupil assistant may do the checking for the librarian or for the classroom

⁶ Figures given by Smith, *op. cit.*, p.23-24, are as follows:

Out of 45 schools (enrollment 500-1000) 54 per cent do not use the library as a study hall; 47 per cent use a combination library and study hall.

Out of 65 schools (enrollment 1000 up) 73 per cent do not use the library as a study hall; 26 per cent use a combination library and study hall (one not reporting).

The report further shows that the percentage of schools where the librarian has teacher assistance when the library is used as a study hall is very low.

teacher who may or may not arrive with the pupils. In small groups, pupils may sign an attendance register.

Of individuals.—If pupils are scheduled individually to the library the office provides the librarian with a roll for each period which may be checked by methods similar to those just described.

2. *Checking voluntary attendance.* When a pupil, who would normally spend a free period in study hall or home room, decides to spend it in the library instead, some method must be devised for checking with the teacher in the room to which he is scheduled.

Admission slips and registers.—The simplest method, and the one probably in most common use, is to secure the pupil's name when he enters the library by having him write it, together with his room number, either on an attendance slip passed out to him at the door or on an attendance register circulated at the table where he elects to sit. Pupil assistants handle these procedures and then quickly sort and return the slips or records to the appropriate study halls for the information of the teachers in charge there.

Variations of this plan require the pupil to secure in advance an admission slip (sometimes called a library permit) from his classroom or study hall teacher or to sign a register in the study hall which is later sent to the library for checking. In case slips are used, they are collected in the library, stamped, and returned to the study hall as evidence of the pupil's arrival. Unless the aim is to limit as well as to check attendance, both procedures seem roundabout since the pupil must usually wait after class to secure a slip from a busy teacher or must visit the study hall before going to the library, in each case losing time.

Permanent library pass.—This plan has been stated as follows:

At the beginning of the school year a card or "library pass" is made out for each student enrolled. These are kept on file at the attendance desk. The first time a student spends a period in the library he calls for his pass. It is dated five weeks ahead, with 20 spaces on it, since the library seats not quite 10 per cent of the school and it is necessary to limit attendance. The student helper sorts out the passes according to the study rooms, checks the number of passes with the number of students in the library, and takes the passes to the study rooms. There the teachers check with their absent list, and the library assistant comes back to the library with the passes and returns them to their owners before the period is over.⁷

⁷ Ward, L. A., ed. "School Libraries Section." *Wilson Library Bulletin* 11:267, December 1936.

FORMS USED IN CHECKING ATTENDANCE

Bookland High School Library Library Permit	
Name	
Study hall or home room number	
Date	Issued by
Checked by	

Bookland High School Library	
Study hall	Period
Date	Checked by
Pupil's Name	
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	

Bookland High School Library Library Attendance	
Name	Study hall no.
is spending the period in the library.	
Date	Checked by

A variation of this plan is modeled after the automobile driver's license. A pupil may at any time apply at the library for his "license" or permit. He is advised to carry it with him in a protective covering such as those used for streetcar passes or drivers' licenses. Presentation of this credential allows him to enter the library at any time, the only restriction being a study hall quota system which prevents overcrowding. When applying for his permit, the pupil fills out an application form which he is instructed to read, noting his obligations. This form is filed in the library to facilitate checking on possible duplications of permits, to record lost permits, and so on. When a pupil misbehaves he must surrender his permit, which is held in the library for an appropriate length of time. On it is recorded under date the nature of his violation of library regulations. To redeem his permit, a pupil must pass a ten minute true-false test based on a "Know

Your Library" manual, the assumption being generously made that his violation was due to lack of knowledge rather than deliberate neglect of library rules and that once he knows what these rules are he will act accordingly.⁸

3. Limiting devices.

Attendance by special permit.—Where it is felt that library attendance must or should be strictly limited to pupils able to produce on arrival documentary evidence from instructors that definite assignments must be prepared, some sort of special permit is required. This differs from the third form illustrated in that space is left for filling in the nature of the pupil's errand to the library. This method is not used nearly so often now and probably should not be unless inadequate library space makes necessary the reduction of attendance to the minimum, for it has a number of objectionable features. It places a burden on the classroom teacher by adding to the number of her clerical duties. It puts a premium upon subterfuge; in order to secure the privilege of reading a magazine the pupil stoutly asserts he needs time on his history assignment. It lays upon the librarian a heavy duty of surveillance, and it necessitates a round of checking.

The best use of special permits is to meet out-of-the-ordinary situations as when an individual or a group is dismissed from a classroom to go to the library after the beginning of a recitation period, for those entering at unusual times or from unusual places must always be specifically accounted for. The special permit explains the reason for tardy appearance and provides the librarian with a clue as how best to serve the newcomer if his teacher believes he needs personal aid. Theoretically the latter purpose is served when the permit system is in general use; but in practice the permits are too numerous and appear all at one time when the librarian is too busy to give them more than cursory attention.

Attendance quotas.—A device for preventing overcrowding is the assignment by the librarian of attendance quotas to each study hall or home room for the several periods of the day. These quotas are written upon the blackboard or in a register which is kept in the study hall and pupils may sign up for the library until the room quota is exhausted. If it develops that some are signing day after day and thus preventing others, an appeal to the sense of justice of the pupil group usually brings a readjustment. If

⁸ Herron, Miriam. [Contribution to school and children's library column] *Wilson Library Bulletin* 19:53-54, September 1944.

not, persistently selfish individuals can be dealt with personally. This plan dextrously combines limitation with voluntary attendance. A modification of the scheme is to supply the study hall with library tickets up to the limit of its quota. Instead of having pupils sign the register, the study hall teacher or a pupil aide issues the tickets. Still another method is regulation by means of tickets distributed at the library door, the number of tickets equalling the number of seats.

Other devices are: (a) limiting voluntary attendance to pupils in the upper grades or (b) limiting on a basis of scholarship. The first has the advantage of postponing unrestricted attendance until pupils are mature enough to be self-directing, but it has the disadvantage of curtailing pupils' visits at the age when the desire to read is most urgent and when the exploratory tendency should be encouraged. The other plan, attendance limitation on a scholarship basis, closes the library to pupils whose only real interest in the school may be in reading.

Needless to say, under any quota system the use of permits, attendance slips or an attendance roll will be required for purposes of checking.

4. **General considerations.** In inaugurating any of the varied methods for checking and limiting attendance described in the last few pages, two or three points should always be borne in mind. The plan should be simple, requiring a minimum of work for teachers and librarians and putting the fewest possible restrictions on the pupil. The burden of work should be thrown upon the pupil. He should sign his own name, be responsible for handing in his own slip. The plan should afford an accurate check, eliminating as far as possible opportunities to "cut" or to gain access to the library under false pretenses. At the same time it should be recognized that the greater the amount of red tape the likelier it is that the system will fall of its own weight. It is also worth noting that librarians in elementary schools report very little attempt to check when attendance is voluntary. Pupils like to come and seldom fail to appear. The necessity for checking increases as pupils become older.

In a school with a well-developed social consciousness in which it is customary for pupils to assist in routine duties, attendance checking can be handled almost entirely by pupil aides. It may even be omitted altogether when pupil monitors guard schoolhouse exits and challenge individuals wandering in halls minus appropriate credentials. If the pupil cannot get out of the building there is usually no point in cutting the library—so he does not.

VIII. SCHEDULING AUXILIARY ROOMS

To prevent friction and overlapping, arrangements must be made in advance for the use of rooms auxiliary to the main reading room. Often, such arrangements are informal, the librarian and the teacher or the librarian and the pupil group deciding in conference when a room is to be used, and the librarian noting it on her calendar. If several rooms are involved and use is fairly constant it may be necessary to have a printed or mimeographed schedule on which may be entered in advance the activities programmed. The librarian is the custodian of this schedule. Experience will show whether it can merely be posted and teachers and pupils left to sign up at will, or whether the librarian's approval is a necessary preliminary. The former arrangement is desirable because it saves time.

A suitable form is illustrated below.

CONFERENCE ROOM REGISTER

Teachers, school organizations, or committees wishing to make use of the library conference room may reserve the same not longer than one day in advance by filling in this form opposite the desired period, provided that:

1. No organization may sign in advance for more than one period in any day.
2. Not more than two groups may sign for the same period.
3. The person who signs as sponsor will be held responsible for the proper use of room and table.

DATE.....

Period	Organization or Committee	Sponsor
8 to 8:30 A.M.	Table 1	
	Table 2	
1	Table 1	
	Table 2	
2	Table 1	
	Table 2	
3	Table 1	
	Table 2	

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Group discussion on the combined library and study hall. The case for such a combination is well presented.

Circulation of Books and Other Materials

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| I. Objectives of the Circulation System | 1. Books temporarily out of circulation |
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| 3. Reserves | 2. Renewals |
| 4. Faculty loans and classroom charges | VI. Overdues, Fines, Damages |
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| 2. Audio-visual materials | 3. Lost books |
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| IV. Miscellaneous Circulation Records | VIII. Rush-Hour Devices and Required Reading |
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I. OBJECTIVES OF THE CIRCULATION SYSTEM

The objectives of the circulation system are: (a) to provide for the widest possible use of books and other library materials by pupils and teachers; (b) to make proper adjustments between reference demands and home and classroom use of books; (c) to put the right book into the hands of the right pupil (or teacher) at the right time; and (d) to devise a charging system that will carry out the above with the least possible expense, friction and expenditure of time.

In order to accomplish these aims, provision must be made for home circulation, both overnight and longer; for intramural circulation such as loans to classrooms; for reserves; for recording the whereabouts of books temporarily out of circulation; for the return of overdue books and the collection of fines and damages; and occasionally, for pupil reading records. The pages that follow show how circulation practices may be adjusted to meet these considerations.

II. CHARGING ROUTINES FOR BOOKS

Charging routines as a rule are based on standard, simple methods in general use in small libraries with such adaptations as are necessary to make them work in the school situation.¹ Where the school library is part of a public library system, routines of course conform as nearly as possible to those of the public library, though some adjustments are inevitable. The same holds true for all other phases of circulation.

1. **Loans to individuals.** Essential records when the school library lends its materials to individuals are: (a) the name of the person to whom the item is being lent, together with his home room, grade room, or study hall number; (b) the date due (often omitted in the case of instructors); and (c) in some instances, a continuous record of the pupil's reading.

These records are kept on cards. The equipment for (a) and (b) is: a book pocket pasted in the book and bearing at the top the call number and the accession or copy number; a book card bearing at the top numbers identical with those on the pocket, brief title, and author's name; a date slip attached to the flyleaf opposite the book pocket;² date stamps; and a charging tray with date guides. When a book is to be charged, the borrower removes the book card and enters upon it his name and, if a pupil, his home room or study hall number. Sometimes the librarian makes the entry, but this slows up the process of charging and does not necessarily insure legibility. There is a decided advantage in having the pupil sign his name. In case of lost or overdue books, or other irregularities, when his signature appears on the book card he will not be able to say he did not withdraw the book.

The necessary entries made, the librarian stamps the book card and the date slip with the date the book is due and files the card in the charging tray under date. When the book is returned the card is searched in the file under the date appearing on the date slip and is replaced in the book, whereupon the transaction is complete and the book may be shelved. If it seems desirable to keep in addition (c) a record of the pupil's reading,

¹ In her textbook, *Circulation Work in Public Libraries*, A.L.A., 1927, Jennie M. Flexner covers the theory and practice of circulation in detail. Students desiring full information are referred to that volume. The preparation of school library books for lending, and simple methods for recording loans, statistics, etc., are covered in Douglas, M. P. *Teacher-Librarian's Handbook*. A.L.A., 1941, p.24-26. Special methods for the elementary school are touched upon in Gardiner, Jewel, and Baisden, L. B. *Administering Library Service in the Elementary School*. A.L.A., 1941. (Consult index.)

² Some libraries prefer instead to insert a date due card in the book pocket.

this may be accomplished by adding a borrower's card to the charging equipment and entering on it the call number, author and title of the book together with the date drawn and, if there appears to be a reason for it as a part of the pupil's reading record, the date returned. The last may be useful to teachers wishing to check on the speed as well as the nature of the pupil's reading.

This system is so simple even young pupils are easily taught to assist in charging books by signing their own names and, as desk assistants, wielding a date stamp, and sorting and filing book cards.

Charging machines are used in public libraries to save time and insure accuracy. Large school libraries may use them though the fact that voluntary pupil aid is readily available suggests that a machine is doubtful economy. For descriptions of such machines see catalogs of supply firms.³

2. Short-time loans. Many school libraries find it desirable to circulate books as two kinds: long-term and short-time (overnight or period) books. There is no physical division between them on the shelves. Short-time and long-term books are arranged together, the period of loan being indicated by a mark in or on the book itself.

For permanent marking of short-time books, a star or other symbol may be placed on the spine of the book and the pocket may be stamped "1-day, 2-day," or whatever the length of time for which the book may be borrowed. As a temporary measure, the term of the short-time loan may be marked with red pencil on or above the book pocket. Another temporary measure is inserting a colored card or one marked or stamped as above in the book. When there is no longer any special demand for the volume the colored card is removed and the book is again available for long-term circulation. In view of sudden shifts in demand in the school, temporary measures are usually preferable.

3. Reserves. Reserve books take two forms: (a) books held for a borrower for a short time at his request; (b) curriculum reserves; books or collections of material segregated and withdrawn from general circulation at the request of an instructor.

(a). An individual wishing to have a book held for him fills in a reserve slip with author, title, and call number of the book desired, the date of the request and, if a pupil, his study hall number. No fee is charged. An assistant searches the book on the shelves or in the circulation file. "If the volume is in circulation a signal of some kind is attached to the book card,

³ Gaylord Brothers, Dickman Company, and others.

which is returned to the file. This may be a paper clip or colored slip,"⁴ or even the reserve slip itself. When the book is found or comes in over the circulation desk, it is laid aside with the reserve slip inserted and the borrower is notified to call for it within a limited period of time. If the volume has previously been designated for overnight circulation only and so must be left on the shelf until the end of the day, a signal or the prospective borrower's name may be clipped to the book card or pocket or some other simple method devised for holding the volume for the individual who has signed for it.

(b). Curriculum reserves are now often managed by making books "short-time," i.e., available for overnight circulation only. They are left in their usual places on the shelves, and student fair play is relied upon to assure that they do not disappear. If they do disappear, the fact is reported to the instructor concerned who takes the matter up with the class in an effort to create better attitudes. This plan is in successful operation in more than one school where a fine sense of student responsibility is consistently encouraged and developed.

Where a more closely supervised system is required for curriculum reserves, books are segregated in some special location, constituting what is known as a "reserve collection." The important items in this plan are (a) a teacher's reserve request form, (b) indication of the reserve in or on the book, (c) indication of the reserve in the circulation file, (d) a special alcove or case, and (e) a simple method for issuing or checking on the books.

(a). The teacher's reserve book request is included in the form for *Advance Notice of Reference Activities* illustrated in Chapter IV, p.77.

(b). When the teacher's request is received at the library desk, the books designated are removed from the regular shelves and provided with special identification such as a colored card stamped "reserved" in the book pocket. Or a narrow tongue of colored paper projecting beyond the leaves may be used as a marker. In the hurry and rush of school work it is convenient to be able to identify a reserve book quickly wherever found.

(c). The next step is to remove the book card and insert it in a special file in the charging tray marked "Reserves." This is done to facilitate tracing by desk assistants who may not know or remember that the book is on reserve. A temporary colored book card is inserted in the book pocket for charging purposes.

⁴Flexner. *Op. cit.*, p.112-14.

(d). The book is now shelved in a reserve case or alcove from which it may be withdrawn during the day for use in the library only. In the small library the reserve collection may be kept on a shelf inside the circulation desk; in the larger library, in a section of shelving back of the desk or an alcove some distance removed in charge of a pupil assistant, thus preventing congestion. Arrangement on the shelves may be by call number, by instructor's name, by author, or by title. Experimentation will indicate which works best.

(e). When a pupil asks for the book it may be charged on the temporary book card like any ordinary book except that the period or hour due is substituted for or added to the date. Or, if a temporary book card has not been made as indicated in (c), the borrower may fill out a slip with his name, author and title of the book, call number, et cetera. In any case, the charges for each period are filed separately, and apart from the general circulation in order that the books may be discharged promptly when returned and missing titles checked at the end of each period.

A simpler charging routine for the small library omits the temporary book card or slip. Instead, there is kept on the desk a pad on which pupils sign for any reserve books used. (See illustration) Each pupil is responsi-

RESERVE BOOK RECORD					
					Date.....
Accession no.	Author	Title	Pupil's name	Home room no.	Time

ble for cancelling his own signature when he returns the book. This is not as sure a check as is the use of temporary book cards, but it saves time. A pupil assistant may be trained to handle the books and to supervise the charges under either plan.

In a number of schools, pupils must sign for the privilege of withdrawing curriculum reserves overnight. At the close of the day the books go

to those pupils who have had the foresight to sign for them in advance. It is well to guard this system from abuse by posting the sheet for advance signatures where everyone can see it. This has a tendency to discourage the repeated withdrawal of the same book by an individual not blessed with a sense of fair play. If the librarian does not remind him of his unfairness, his classmates will.

Translations usable as "ponies" and synopses which are a temptation to pupils preparing book reports may be kept permanently on reserve and issued only on the teacher's request, if such a plan seems desirable. Foreign dictionaries and certain too popular volumes such as debaters' handbooks may be treated similarly. But the librarian must remember that the greater the number of reserves, the greater the clerical task. Without pupil assistance, a busy school library reserve system can become a great burden.

4. **Faculty loans and classroom charges.** Faculty members withdraw library materials for personal use in the same way as pupils except that in the case of titles interesting only to instructors or needed by them for professional purposes the term of the loan is often generously extended. A courteous note suggesting that the book is needed or has been away an unduly long time secures its return in cases of lapse of memory or apparent abuse of faculty privilege.

Classroom charges are different. Here books are withdrawn by teachers for the use of pupils and length of loan is determined by the classroom activities with which the books are associated. Although the teacher's name is customarily entered as borrower, a symbol is used to indicate the nature of the loan (perhaps a "c" after the instructor's name) to indicate the fact that the teacher really acts as custodian. This suggests that, while he is responsible for proper use and care, his financial responsibility for books stolen or damaged can scarcely be insisted upon although it is not to be passed over lightly. If an instructor turns out to be a poor custodian, the logical remedy would appear to be curtailment of loans to his classroom—by and with the consent of the principal. In all cases, the policy relative to losses should be agreed upon in advance. The appointment of pupil librarians to take charge of classroom collections is often a help to both teacher and librarian.

Whether the loan to the classroom is to be regarded as final or whether books may be lent from the classroom to pupils depends on circumstances though secondary loans do not as a rule work too well. They involve much clerical work which teachers are too busy to carry through or to supervise

satisfactorily. Although more roundabout, a better method seems to be keeping in the classroom only such books as are to be used there, and returning to the library all titles pupils are to withdraw for home use.

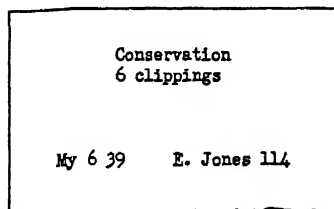
For one reason or another, this cannot always be done and so some arrangement must be made for secondary loans to pupils. This may be accomplished by inserting in the book when it is taken from the library a duplicate book card of different color to be used in charging the volume from the classroom.

In the library, the original book cards for the group of titles sent out on classroom loan may be bunched together and filed under the instructor's name instead of under date, a plan which facilitates quick carding when the volumes are returned as a group. Some libraries prefer instead a separate file of all classroom charges to teachers arranged alphabetically by author.

III. CIRCULATION OF SPECIAL ITEMS

Special materials included in the school library collection often require special circulation devices.

1. **Pamphlets and clippings.** Pamphlets and clippings are not provided with book cards but are charged on temporary slips cut the size of book cards. In some schools, different colored cards are used for different types of nonbook material, e.g., orange for magazines, blue for pictures, etc. This adds to ease in filing and discharging. Depending on how materials are organized, the main entry on the book card may be by class number, or by subject, followed by the number of items lent, or by the titles of the items if important. Thus, if the library lends Miss Jones six items from a vertical file arranged by subject, the entry on the temporary card appears as shown in the illustration. The date is the date due, as in books, and



the number following Miss Jones's name is her room number. The clippings are inserted in an envelope (many schools save used manila mailing envelopes for this purpose) on which is also stamped the date. Should only

part of the clippings be returned, a notation to that effect is added to the card which is again filed. The teacher's name may be added to the envelope if necessary, but the number of such loans in the average library is not sufficiently large to create much difficulty in checking. If a single pamphlet having a durable manila cover is withdrawn, the date may be stamped directly on the back and no envelope used.

2. **Audio-visual materials.** Pictures may be charged in similar fashion, except that the date is stamped on the envelope in which the pictures are enclosed. Either the subject or the artist's name and the title of the picture may appear on the charging slip.

Slides and stereopticon views may be charged by the box, the temporary slip bearing proper identification. Records, films, and the like may also be entered on temporary slips. As a rule, circulation of pictures, slides, records, and films is limited to teachers, but exceptions may always be made.

3. **Periodicals.** Periodicals may or may not be circulated, depending upon the opportunity of pupils to use them in the library, on duplication, and on home facilities. In the past, current issues were not very generally lent to pupils for home use except in the case of duplicates. But Martin⁵ reports increasing overnight and weekly home circulation as well as generous classroom lending. Magazines intended for circulation should be reinforced with manila covers or otherwise protected. Book pockets and book cards may be added, or temporary cards may be used as in the case of pamphlets.

If a school routes current periodicals to teachers before displaying them in the library, charges may be made on temporary slips stamped with the date due. The card is filed under date in order to assure prompt return. The situation becomes complicated if several teachers are on the "pre-view" list. In such cases, a slip bearing their names may be attached to the cover with the idea that one instructor will pass the periodical on to the next without delay.

IV. MISCELLANEOUS CIRCULATION RECORDS

1. **Books temporarily out of circulation.** When books are sent to the bindery, the book cards are removed and placed in the circulation file under the heading "Bindery." It is sometimes useful to treat in the same way books removed from the shelves for mending, especially if mending is not undertaken daily.

⁵ Martin, L. K. *Magazines for School Libraries*. Wilson, 1946.

2. **Interlibrary loans.** When books are lent from one library to another, the record kept by the lending institution is similar to that kept for classroom collections. When books are received by the school library as a temporary loan from some other institution such as the state university extension department, it may be necessary to make temporary charging cards. Books coming from the public library or from any central system of which the school library is a part are usually supplied with duplicate book cards.

V. BORROWING PRIVILEGES

1. **Length of loan.** The length of loans is governed chiefly by demand and by the size of the library collection. The usual rule is seven to fourteen days with the exceptions already noted.

Arrangements may be made for longer loans to cover vacation periods when the library is closed. Except for short vacations, such loans are more often arranged for instructors than for pupils, due in no small degree to the difficulty of locating the latter after vacation is over. They may have moved away or been transferred to another school. School authorities may nevertheless come to the conclusion that possibilities of loss should not be allowed to stand in the way of providing wholesome reading for boys and girls during periods when they have most opportunity to read.

Opening the library for circulation purposes once or twice a week during the summer has been experimented with. Increasing use of schools as community centers will tend to foster such arrangements. Where the school library is operated as a branch of the public library open to the general public, vacation circulation of books is of course assured.

2. **Renewals.** Renewals are generally for an additional period the same length as the original loan. In case of a very small book collection they may have to be discouraged, though not to the point of penalizing the slow reader. Renewal by telephone is ordinarily an emergency measure allowed only in case of sickness or absence from school.

VI. OVERDUES, FINES, DAMAGES

1. **Overdues and fines.** The date due stamped in a book when it is withdrawn from the library is presumed to be sufficient notice for its return. But if the book is not returned, steps must be taken to see that it is.

In case of scheduled attendance, notification that a book is overdue may be oral or through a delinquent list conspicuously posted. Where

library attendance is voluntary, the traditional procedure is to send a personal overdue notice to the borrower in care of his home room or study hall teacher.

Continued failure to respond to overdue notices is cause for special investigation and ultimately for discipline, the normal form of which is curtailment of the pupil's library attendance—not of his borrowing privilege. Continued offenses may even be a cause for temporary suspension from school. This usually brings the parents into the situation and may lead to excellent cooperation. Probably the best method for cutting down overdues is an appeal for a square deal and to the spirit of fair play. Offenders may, of course, be remanded to the student council, if there is one.

Failure to bring back short-time books is a special problem sometimes requiring drastic measures. Here it is not the ultimate return of the book that is imperative but immediate return, for a long line of pupils may be waiting, and a teacher's entire lesson plan upset by the absence of the book even for one day. Reporting the pupil's misdemeanor to the teacher may help by bringing upon him the censure of the class. If the book has been retained by the pupil within the school building it may be necessary for the librarian to interrupt a class or a study period to secure its return. The interruption may be in the nature of a telephone call or a personal visit from a member of the library staff. These are drastic and annoying measures, not to be undertaken without previous understanding with principal and teachers. Lacking such an understanding, they may put blame upon the librarian instead of upon the pupil.

If a book is not returned because a pupil has left school, recourse may be had to the telephone, to personal notes to the parents, or to the attendance officer. In schools where textbook deposits are required, library losses may be reduced by requiring the pupil to secure a library clearance slip before collecting his deposit. Or, if the loss of the book is known in time, credits may be withheld.

Statistical study may be helpful in handling overdues. If it turns out, as in the case of one library, that although approximately 25 per cent of the pupils keep books overtime, only 27 per cent of these are repeaters, the problem narrows down to a few pupils who should be treated individually. In each case, the procedure should be worked out on the basis of character development, educational necessity, and ability to pay in money or in labor.

Fines constitute the traditional means of bringing in overdues. In the

school they are kept small—perhaps two cents per day in the high school except in the case of reserves or short-time books, where a penalty of five cents, or a cumulative fine based on the number of periods the book is overdue may be assessed. The arguments against fines in the school library are that: (1) They work a hardship on parents rather than on pupils; (2) They do not serve to bring in the books because pupils (especially in the high school) are willing to pay a small fine to retain a book they want or need. They regard the fine as rent; (3) Fines tend to interfere with building the sense of responsibility and fair play which are the only sure incentives for the unselfish use of the library by pupils; (4) Fines increase the proclivity for removing books without permission.

In favor of fines the arguments are: (1) Financial responsibility is the only responsibility that many boys and girls respect; (2) If fines are kept small and parents notified of any sizable accumulation there is no injustice to the parent, but rather a chance for parental cooperation; (3) Losses occur under any conditions, and the only cure is to catch the offender and deal with him severely; (4) In life out of school, people pay fines for infringement of rules, and the school should be like life.

Whatever the rules for pupils, fines are not ordinarily assessed against teachers, although a few schools have been driven to such assessments by the continued carelessness of faculty members. Teachers are responsible for damages to books charged to them personally, but leeway is allowed in the case of books charged to a teacher but known to have been used widely by pupils. A conference with the teacher and quiet investigation of conditions should guide the librarian in such cases.

Fine records may be entered on one slip only, kept in the charging tray for easy reference. Only long-standing items need be transferred to a card record filed under pupils' names. Pupils can for the most part be trained to pay their fines promptly so that the names of but a few delinquents find their way to the card record. This record should be carefully kept for those delinquents, however, and the pupils held to strict account for some manner of settlement. One device used in connection with fines unpaid at the end of the term is to arrange with the office to withhold grades until the pupil's library account is cleared. If a school requires a textbook deposit, fines may sometimes be taken out of this deposit.

A good many school libraries have abolished fines, especially in the elementary field where borrowing and lending can be and are more closely supervised than elsewhere.

Substitutes for fines and unique methods for encouraging their prompt payment are interesting. Bargain rates for prompt settlement have been experimented with. The usual two cents per day is assessed, but may be settled at once at a reduced rate. Rewards have been tried in the case of small children: a colored bookmark is given for a perfect record; or borrowing privileges are extended, the borrower being allowed to withdraw at one time more than the usual number of books.

Many high schools have been aided materially in reducing both fines and overdues by the helpful work of room representatives and an appeal to school pride. Immediately after the ringing of the tardy bell in one instance, pupil library assistants from home rooms arrive in the library and are handed the book cards for overdue titles. Returning to their rooms, they request the immediate surrender of titles there available and as a rule are able to bring back to the library most of the overdues, book cards in them ready for the shelves. In case a borrower has left his book at home and it is not a short-time or reserve book, he is allowed one day of grace before penalties are resorted to. If he again fails to return the volume, the assistant arranges with the librarian for proper penalties. In cases involving reserve books, arrangements may sometimes be made with the office for sending the borrower home for the needed volume at once. Room representatives keep careful records of all delinquencies. Repeated offense brings loss of library attendance privileges, but this is a penalty seldom necessary. A prize of five dollars offered by one librarian to the room having the best record creates steady rivalry and keeps representatives on their toes. A proviso attached to the gift requires it to be spent for a book to be presented to the library! With the aid of the librarian a pupil committee selects the volume. When it comes to the library its fly leaf is inscribed with the signatures of all members of the home room—a kind of honor roll.

Another method utilizes the permanent library passes sometimes employed for admission purposes as described in Chapter XIII. Collected by an assistant as pupils enter the library, they are checked with overdue and fine records. Pupils found to be delinquent are advised to settle with the librarian at once or forfeit their passes.

2. Damages. Damages to library materials should consistently be assessed—not by the pupil assistants but by the librarian to whom the matter should be referred as the only one competent to make the proper estimate of what is due.

3. **Lost books.** Reimbursement to the library for lost books is insisted upon, usually for the amount it will cost to replace them. This is true even when the volume is not entirely new because of the expensive time involved in ordering and processing the book and in altering records. When notified of the loss, the library allows a reasonable period of grace free of fines during which the pupil may conduct a thorough search. If at the end of the period, and certainly before the end of the school year, the book is still missing, payment becomes due. When payment is made, a receipt is given and proper record made in the accession book or elsewhere so that if the volume finally turns up the payment may be refunded.

In the case of both damaged and lost materials the sums involved may be so considerable as to be a serious embarrassment to pupils of slender means. Hence, except in the case of habitual offenders, every effort should be made to avoid working a hardship either on them or on their parents. Opportunities for working out damages may be offered. This may be difficult to manage, but usually odd jobs can be found: cleaning the pages of soiled or defaced books, arranging magazine files, etc. In the case of any but irresponsible "repeaters" such arrangements are much better than penalizing the pupil by denying him the privilege of using the library—or its materials. Only in the most extreme cases should the use of books be denied, and then only after consultation with teachers and principal. Refusing to lend the pupil the working tools he needs not only interferes with his schooling but puts a premium upon stealing.

VII. PHYSICAL ARRANGEMENTS

Physical arrangement of the library has much to do not only with speed and efficiency in circulation but also with book losses. Any arrangement which tends to prevent congestion at rush periods helps. Thus, reserves may be issued and returned at a point removed from the main desk; and, during the early morning rush, books may be received at the door in a special receptacle or by a pupil assistant. The desk from which books are issued should be strategically located near, if not actually commanding, the line of egress from the library. If for some reason it is necessary to house books in stacks, the stacks should not be closed. Rather, a charging desk should be so placed as to command the exit. (See small movable charging desks sold by library supply firms.) These arrangements make it easy to have books charged. The hurrying pupil does not have to go out of his way, and the desk is in itself a reminder.

VIII. RUSH-HOUR DEVICES AND REQUIRED READING

Circulation work in the school library is characterized by rush periods except where attendance is scheduled and the borrowing and return of books are routine activities of the pupil's library hour. In scheduling the library staff it is necessary to provide for help at the peak periods which come immediately before and after school. When fixing upon a charging routine it is likewise necessary to bear in mind these beginning and ending rushes as well as the secondary rushes when classes change. The routine outlined earlier is satisfactory in such situations since returned books may simply be left on the desk or in a receptacle and discharged after the rush is over.

In order to handle the required reading in English with a limited book stock it is sometimes necessary to stagger assignments. While certain sections of a class are reading modern poetry, others may be scheduled to read dramas, and others essays. In the elementary school, such books as are available for home reading at any particular time may be wheeled into the classroom where pupils make their choices under the guidance of the teacher who either charges the books to individual pupils and forwards the cards to the library or has a pupil assistant do so.

IX. STATISTICS

Circulation statistics should never become a fetish, for much of the finest service given in the school library has nothing directly to do with circulation. Always, stress should be placed on the extent to which materials are used—not on how many have been withdrawn. The school library should not be thought of primarily as a place from which to borrow reading materials, but as a place in which to use them. This has sometimes been overlooked by administrators, extension agencies, and accrediting bodies. Account should be taken of reading and reference activities within the library, of the use of pamphlets and visual aids, and of whether the use of reading material is well distributed throughout varied subject fields. A big circulation may mean that many books are withdrawn because reading room capacity is inadequate.

Despite the fact that analysis of circulation figures may not be required by administrators or state agencies, records should nevertheless reveal how library materials are being used and what types of materials they are. The reasons for such analysis were set forth earlier.⁶

⁶ See use of circulation statistics in reports, p.268-69.

The mechanics of recording and analyzing circulation statistics are simplified through the use of printed circulation record books available through library supply houses. Books having blank columns which may be provided with special headings such as "Pamphlets," "Films," "Periodicals," "Overnight," etc., are to be preferred.

Puzzling questions may arise as to how to count circulation: (a) If the report form from the state department of education asks only for figures on books, what is to be done about other items widely used? (b) If books are lent to classrooms and from there circulated to pupils, should one transaction or both show up in circulation statistics? (c) What about reserve books charged to the individual for use in the reading room only?

In cases such as (a) there is every reason for noting on the form the figures for supplementary materials even when not required. Doing so calls attention to important library service and indirectly suggests the desirability of changes in the report form.

In the counting of classroom circulation (b), there appears to be little uniformity in practice although sporadic attempts have been made to inaugurate forms and rulings suitable for general use. The difficulties in securing accurate records when secondary loans are made through the classroom is one thing that stands in the way, although it should be possible to provide the teacher or a pupil librarian in the classroom with a form for recording daily circulation so simple as to be readily filled out. Where classroom collections are kept fluid through frequent change and the loan to the classroom is final, common sense would suggest that charges to the classroom should be counted in the same way as circulation to individuals.

A record (c) of the number of reserve books used within the reading room may be useful for various purposes, but it is not customary to count such temporary loans as circulation.

For its own purposes, the school may of course make any ruling it sees fit in the above cases. It is only when comparative figures are desired as between one or more libraries, or when state or national statistics are being collected that trouble arises.

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VI

Government, Support, and External Relationships

Governmental Agencies and the Library

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| IV. Development of Local School Library Service | 3. The county library |
| 1. The isolated school library | 4. The regional library |
| 2. Centralized service | VII. State Agencies and Services |
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| | 2. The U.S. Office of Education Library |
| | 3. The Library Service Division of the U.S. Office of Education |
| | IX. Federal Aid |
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I. GENERAL INTRODUCTION

The government of the school library, the sources from which it receives its financial support, and the varied agencies from which it receives service and advice or with which it cooperates are matters of importance concerning which the school librarian should be well informed.

Elucidation of governmental control is complicated by the fact that in the United States two more or less discrete departments of government are involved: those having to do with public libraries, and those with schools. Excellent treatises on both are available¹ and to such treatises

¹Joeckel, C. B. *Government of the American Public Library*. Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1935.

Engelhardt, Fred. *Public School Organization and Administration*. Ginn, 1931.

For current trends in administrative method, staff organization, finance, etc., see Moehlman, A. B. *School Administration*. Houghton, Mifflin, 1940.

the student must go for full elucidation. However, as a starting point for discussion of the legal functions, organization, and activities of governmental agencies as they affect the local school library, a brief summary should be useful.

At the outset it is important to remember that the support, control and general administration of both public school and public library services are in the United States decentralized. In neither area is government exercised through a federal office in Washington, D.C. Neither the Library of Congress in Washington, D.C. nor the U.S. Office of Education exercises legal control over state or local governmental units; and state agencies, in their turn, exercise a minimum of statutory control over lesser local units. Aside from certification and the distribution of state aid funds, the functions of state agencies where school libraries are concerned are chiefly advisory and supervisory. Local government controls and administers both the public library and the public school and both depend for the better part if not all of their financial support on the local community.

II. GOVERNMENT OF THE LOCAL PUBLIC SCHOOL

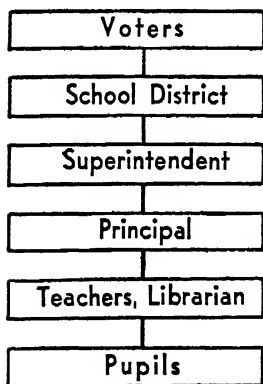
The school district.—The school district is the unit of local government most widely employed in administering and financing the public school. Its boundaries may or may not correspond with those of civil divisions such as the city, town, or township. The district usually functions through an elected board of education or school directors who, except in the thinly populated rural district, employ a superintendent of schools to whom they delegate authority to direct the educational program, to recommend and supervise personnel, and often to act as business manager.

From the superintendent, the line of authority descends to the principals of the various schools, through them to teachers, counselors, librarian and other professional personnel, and through this group to pupils (See chart).

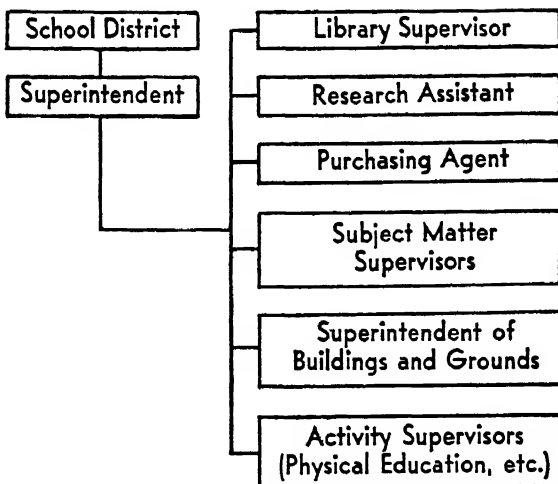
Since in a district with a heavy school enrollment, it is impossible for one man to perform individually all the functions of the superintendent's office, the superintendent has working under him a group of experts who supervise or administer various phases of the educational program, conduct the routine business of the office, direct building and maintenance, and engage in research or planning. The titles of these individuals vary. They may be supervisors, directors, or assistant superintendents in charge of special areas of administration. The chart shown suggests a very simple

LOCAL SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

LINE OF AUTHORITY



CENTRAL STAFF



form of organization. Whatever the form, the school librarian is likely to have contacts with many members of the central staff, either directly through the principal's office or through that of the supervisor of libraries if there is one.

The county unit.—In certain states, county unit administration of schools has completely superseded the school district, and in others it is favored for thinly populated areas inadequate either for financing or for effective educational work. All schools in the county are integrated into a single system organized in a manner similar to that indicated above for the school district. Such county units should not be confused with the traditional county school office directed by an elected superintendent who operates as a kind of intermediary between state and smaller local schools, particularly in rural areas.

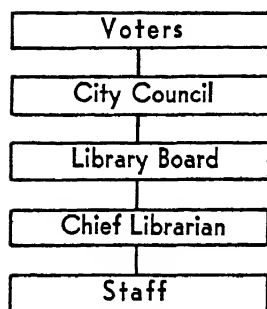
III. GOVERNMENT OF THE LOCAL PUBLIC LIBRARY

At the local level, public library service is ordinarily organized under such civil units as the village, town, or municipality, the line of authority most frequently descending from the city council or its equivalent through a library board to a head librarian appointed by the board and so on down as indicated in the chart.

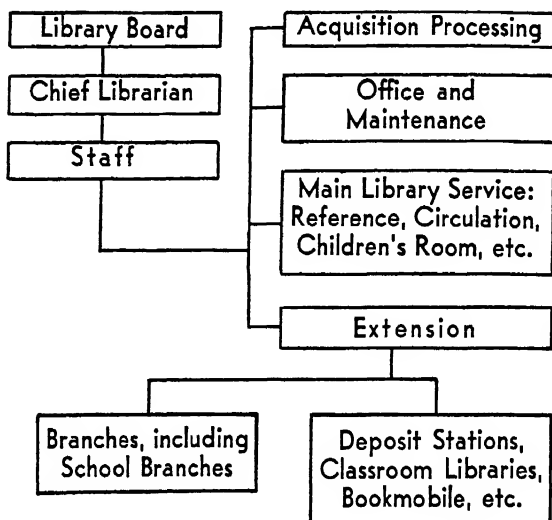
As anyone knows who has read Joeckel on the *Government of the*

LOCAL LIBRARY ADMINISTRATION

LINE OF AUTHORITY



ORGANIZATION



American Public Library,² this outline is obviously an oversimplification. There are many exceptions. Conspicuous among them are libraries operating under the city-manager plan of local government and the school district plan under which the government of the public library is more or less connected with that of the local school district.

Depending on circumstances, the organization of the staff within the public library follows some such grouping as that indicated in the chart.³ Work with schools classifies with the extension activities of the public library. Larger school libraries are branches. Bookmobile and deposit station service is provided for schools not having organized branches. In larger systems, a special school department functions under the direction of a school library specialist usually known as a supervisor or director.

As in the case of schools, the local unit may be too small for adequate financing and efficient service, and a county or regional unit may take its place. In such cases, the board of county commissioners or an equivalent body would be substituted in the outline for the city council, and the library board might be omitted.

² Joeckel, *op. cit.* See also by the same author "The Public Library Under the City-Manager Form of Government" in *Library Quarterly* 1:121-47; 301-34, April and July 1931.

³ But see McDiarmid, E. W., and McDiarmid, John. *The Administration of the American Public Library*. A.L.A., 1943, for modifications and extensions of this outline.



The bookmobile brings library services to small schools regularly

The library corner in a one-room rural school





Pupils working together make a poetry scrapbook

A class works in the library with its teacher



IV. DEVELOPMENT OF LOCAL SCHOOL LIBRARY SERVICE

1. **The isolated school library.** Historically, the organized library within the school had a spotty development. Here and there a far-seeing local school administrator sensitive to the importance of library service to the well-rounded development of the educational program either persuaded the board of education to provide funds for books and personnel, or else, working with the local public library, developed some sort of cooperative plan.

Except when provided through a cooperative plan, the libraries that grew up were isolated units located in high schools, financed by the board of education, and operated autonomously under the direct supervision of principals. All essential processes were carried on within the four walls of each library, the librarian there being responsible for the acquisition, processing, classifying and cataloging of all materials placed on its shelves or in its files. Its program of service was unique and quite unrelated to that of other school libraries, even those functioning within the same school district.

In the majority of localities where organized school libraries are in operation at the present time, similar situations persist. Under them, outstanding secondary school libraries have developed and continue to do excellent work, thanks to the devotion and ability of librarians, intelligent cooperation on the part of school authorities, and reasonably adequate financial support from school funds. In other cases there is reason to believe such libraries might be much better off operating under the direction of and with encouragement from a central office of organization and supervision.

2. **Centralized service.** In the few localities where organized libraries in schools were instituted on a cooperative basis, technical processes were, as a rule, carried on in the public library, and service in and to the school was supervised and directed from the same quarter, though not necessarily by a special staff member appointed for that purpose. More often it was the children's department which worked closely with branch and cataloging departments. Or in the case of a very small village or county library, school service might be handled by the head librarian herself. Much splendid accomplishment came in this way, and still does. Most small schools, especially isolated rural ones, are far better off with even a limited amount of public library supervision and library service than they would be proceeding independently.

V. THE CENTRAL DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL LIBRARIES

1. **Organization and values.** As the years have passed and demands for library service in the lower grades as well as the high school have grown, the organization, administration and supervision of school library service from a special department either in the public library or the school system have in many cases become a necessity. Such centralization has proved its value. It is good educational practice, good administration, and good economy. It is good educational practice because it means a unified program and expert supervision and because the library needs of the system can be viewed as a whole, elementary schools and junior high schools receiving their due share of consideration with senior high schools where library work may actually be developing at the expense of the grades. It is good administration and good economy because much organizational work (cataloging, classifying, etc.) can be carried on more efficiently and more economically by an expert staff in a central office than by isolated and sometimes ill-prepared librarians working independently and because books may often be centrally acquired at a better discount and with less expenditure of energy than when each librarian carries through the process independently.

Whether maintained under the public library roof or in the headquarters of the local board of education, the central office may be known as the office, department, or division of school libraries; or it may be combined with other divisions in the school system and become the department of textbooks and libraries, of libraries and audio-visual aids, or of all three. The person in charge is variously known as supervisor, director, advisor, or coordinator. Occasionally, as ascertained by Stallman⁴, administration of the office may, in case of exclusive board of education control, be placed in the hands of an assistant superintendent in charge of high schools or some other central office administrator such as the supervisor of English.

2. **Functions of the department.**

Policy making.—The supervisor or director of school libraries is responsible for the policies that guide the organization and activities of the central office and of the school libraries operating under her supervision. In matters of policy she arrives at important decisions only after consultation

⁴ Stallman, E. L. "Governmental Forces Controlling School Library Service." In National Society for the Study of Education. *Forty-second Yearbook, Pt. II: The Library in General Education*. 1943, p.211-22. (Distributed by the Department of Education, Univ. of Chicago.)

with all concerned—not only with librarians in the schools but with heads of staff in the public library and the school system. This is not only to make sure of understanding and cooperation, but also to avoid biased or ill-considered decisions.

Liaison work.—The central school library office helps the various libraries in the system to pursue together a unified program and to work harmoniously and effectively with the public library whether officially connected with it or not. Perhaps this is why the school library supervisor is sometimes given the title of coordinator. To school administrators and activity and subject supervisors she explains the problems that beset librarians working in or for schools; to librarians she interprets the policies and activities of the school group, trying in each case to bring about helpful working relationships. Among the means employed are: (a) group conferences of school librarians in which problems are discussed, new ideas aired, and plans laid for future work and cooperation; and (b) inter-departmental conferences in which the director of school libraries sits with other school supervisors or with heads of departments in the public library that she may fully understand and enter into their plans and programs and help to bring about desirable coordination.

Acquisition of library materials and organization for use.—In the central office, requests for books and other materials coming from the various libraries in the system are scrutinized for appropriateness and culled to avoid unnecessary duplication. Lists are then combined, and the orders placed.

Sometimes when the office is a unit of the central school staff, its responsibility for library materials may stop with the placing of orders, the books being forwarded on arrival directly to the individual schools for processing there. But increasingly under all forms of central organization, the full round of technical processes connected with the preparation of library materials for use is completed before the materials are sent out. As orders are filled, the items received are accessioned, classified, cataloged, prepared for circulation, and delivered to school libraries accompanied by shelf-list and catalog cards. Central records and routines involved are similar to those employed by public libraries in connection with extension service. The central catalog contains entries for all titles in the school system, the shelf-list and circulation records indicate in what school building each title may be found. Arrangements are made for the speedy transfer of books and visual aids between the central office and the schools, and from one

school to another in response to special demands. Larger school libraries in the system are organized in much the same way as branches in a public library system. In fact, when the central office is located in the public library they are often designated as school branches. Smaller libraries open only part-time under trained personnel may be compared to sub-branches in a public library system. There are deposit stations in classrooms and schools of limited enrollment, and there is bookmobile service for outlying districts.

Cooperative selection of books and other materials of learning.—When school library work is centralized, book selection becomes a cooperative enterprise. Subject matter supervisors and the director of libraries, being in close contact, can and do consult frequently about library books, texts, and supplementary materials. There is much pooling of book knowledge. School librarians participate in weekly or monthly book meetings in which the current offerings of trade and educational presses are critically reviewed and evaluated for school purposes. Periodicals are dealt with similarly. If the department is responsible for audio-visual aids, films and records are likewise evaluated. Evaluations are often incorporated in a decisions file—an annotated card list, indicating, in cases where the materials are judged to be of value, at what level and in what connection they ought to be of most service. Out of this file may grow suggested buying lists. In proportion as cooperative evaluation prevails, mistakes in selection are cut down, and the necessity for censorship on the part of the central office lessens.

Maintenance of a central collection of printed and audio-visual materials.

(a) *For general school use.* In any school system it is more economical to circulate certain materials from a central office or depot as occasion demands than to deposit them permanently in the various school buildings. This is obviously true of audio-visual aids because of cost and limited periods of usefulness, i.e., a moving picture film of considerable value takes but a short time to show and can at once be passed on to another school audience. It may also be true of recreational reading. Where funds for the purchase of books are limited, shifting books from one school to another allows children to get a chance at many instead of being confronted month after month with the same small collection of titles most of which have already been read.

Ideally, a school of any size should have a considerable basic collection of recreational, factual and ready reference books immediately at hand at

all times. But aside from ready reference items, this is not always practicable. In the case of a rural school with limited enrollment it may be quite out of the question. Hence the central office becomes a book depot from which packages for classrooms or schools are made up and sent out at stated intervals or on request. Preferably, they are fluid units made up as circumstances or the progress of each grade through the varied phases of the curriculum demands. By careful scheduling of subject matter units of the curriculum itself, it is possible under such a system to make the same books serve a large number of classes with minimum duplication of titles. While all 5A groups are studying conservation, one group may be working with a unit on water power while a similar group in another school is busy studying about national forests, each making heavy use of library materials which are shifted from school to school as classes move from one area of learning to the next.

From the central depot may also be sent collections of recreational or general interest reading, special bundles for slow or rapid readers, and small packages of materials to meet sudden or unusual demands such as those arising out of school activities and projects.

Within the central library, materials for temporary deposit in or circulation to schools are organized and arranged much as in any other library. Of course, if duplication is heavy, or if texts are being administered along with library books, much storage space has to be provided and wholesale methods developed. To the central library come supervisors, curriculum committees, and individual teachers. They explore the shelves, examine indexes and catalogs, look over titles displayed for them by the library staff, and with the help of that same staff make lists and decide on references to be incorporated in course syllabi. If the central library is closely affiliated with or is a part of the public library system, arrangements are frequently made whereby the schools may draw directly and freely upon the book resources of the entire system—a point often emphasized when unified control of public and school libraries is being considered.

(b) *For professional use by teachers.* It has been suggested that somewhere in the school system or in the public library provision should be made for a professional collection for teachers. A school library center may undertake the administration of such a collection. It is a sound arrangement from the administrative point of view because the professional resources of the system are gathered together in one place and made useful through expert reference service, while at the same time extension and

deposit station service through the schools is provided. In addition to books and periodicals pedagogical in nature, there may also be courses of study and course syllabi collected from other school systems, reports and proceedings of educational agencies, special reference tools such as the *Education Index*, and a showing of sample textbooks. Thus outfitted, the teachers' library becomes a working laboratory for all professional members of the school system.

Affiliation of the central teachers' library with a public library has the advantage of concentrating in one place the educational reading resources of the entire community and providing close physical relationship with allied fields of reading. No matter where located, the teachers' library should be in charge of an expert who is at home in both library and school fields and is capable of understanding and intelligent assistance since she works in close cooperation with administrative and supervisory members of the school staff as well as with teachers and plays an important role in research work and curriculum building.

When the educational collection is located in the public library, it has sometimes been developed into a combined parent and teacher room. Here are assembled not only the professional collection for instructors, but books dealing with problems common to the two groups: character training, physiological and psychological development, and cooperation between home and school. To this may be added a model collection of books for children which does not circulate but is kept permanently on the shelves for the assistance of parents and teachers in book selection.

3. The school library supervisor.

Qualifications.—In general, qualifications for the position of school library supervisor should be equivalent to those for equally important staff positions educational in nature, but preparation and experience should not be one-sided. In addition to a baccalaureate degree, at least a year of study in an approved library school plus successful experience in school library work may be set down as the minimum requirement on the side of professional librarianship. Personal qualifications include poise, tact, vision, initiative, business sense, cooperativeness, enthusiasm, good judgment, and fairness. Ability in public speaking is helpful.

Supervision has ceased to mean management, surveillance and arbitrary control. Present-day emphasis is upon leadership, organization, and ability to secure teamwork. The advisability of acting in an advisory rather than in a managerial capacity is worthy of special attention. Good supervisors

know that in dealing with library personnel demonstration is better than preachment, that on the whole, recognition of work well done is better than adverse criticism, and setting up goals better than prodding. In dealing with school administrators, demonstration is likewise to be preferred to argument while constructive planning and problem-solving go further than censoriousness.

Professional stimulation.—One of the supervisor's first duties is to provide personal inspiration by being on her toes professionally and intellectually and by developing programs that keep the librarians working with her. Partly this may come through the provision of in-service training for the inexperienced. In systems where it is necessary to employ a good many teacher-librarians, classes dealing with the philosophy and practical problems of school library management are organized, and extension courses and summer school study are encouraged. Every effort is made to keep those better equipped and longer in service from getting stale on the job. Personal research and advanced study are encouraged. So too is group study of school library problems. Examples of the latter are the critical investigation of cataloging practices; revision of the library instruction curriculum and the preparation of course syllabi for the same; study of librarian load; and the development of formulas for the guidance of administrators in determining load.⁵ Numerous other projects might be listed, many of which, like those chosen as examples, have actually been carried out.

Advisory visits.—The appearance in the school of the supervisor has little in common with the old idea of "inspection." As set forth by Witmer⁶ the advisory visit has two principal phases: survey and service, the former being particularly essential for the new supervisor in order to become acquainted with principals and librarians, room and book equipment, and educational patterns in individual schools. Later visits are undertaken from the point of view of service and are primarily aimed at aiding in the solution of current problems. Personnel and other difficulties are ironed out, constructive suggestions are offered librarians and principals, and plans discussed for accomplishing them. "The supervisory department now becomes a service station subject to call when the need for expert advice is felt and demanded."

⁵ A project carried through not long ago by Chicago school librarians.

⁶ Witmer, E. M. "City Supervision of School Libraries: Denver." In American Library Association Education Committee. *School Library Yearbook Number Two*. A.L.A., 1928, p.98-108. Reprinted from *Library Journal* 52:851-55, September 15, 1927.

Planning school libraries.—Working with the school architect, principals, and interested librarians, the supervisor is of inestimable aid in preventing unfortunate mistakes in library planning, and can be of equally inestimable assistance in putting over the desirable features embodied in Chapter X. In some instances, supervisor and architect together produce plans and specifications possible of application throughout the school system.

Educating the public. Reports, etc.—Through reports that are forward-looking as well as statistical and descriptive the supervisor makes school and library administrators cognizant of new fields to be entered and experiments to be tried, while keeping them in touch with what is actually going on. Through addresses, discussion, writing, committee service and membership on important boards she helps widen knowledge of library service and secures the moral and financial support that it needs.

Personnel work.—Personnel work occupies much of the supervisor's time. Standards of eligibility to be used in the selection of librarians are formulated and tests of such eligibility set up and administered where required. Applicants are recommended for employment and subsequently placed within the local system. The supervisor also advises school and library authorities of the success or failure of the appointees as professional workers, recommends advancement and arranges for transfers, works out schedules where schedules are needed, acts as a go-between when misunderstandings arise between librarian and principal—in short, carries on in the mixed environment of school and library the duties common to personnel work everywhere.

VI. COUNTY AND REGIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Discussion of centralized administration and supervision at the local level has prepared the way for a survey of school library service at the next higher level—the county or the region.

1. Rural school and library conditions. It is common knowledge that school districts in rural areas are frequently too sparsely settled and too lacking in financial resources to provide adequate educational opportunity. The same difficulties exist in rural library service both for the general public and for schools.

Despite all the agitation in recent years for the consolidation of schools and for broader administration through the county unit there is still a long way to go. According to the latest available figures, 107,692 one-room rural schools are still in existence. Of the public high schools in the United

States 65.6 per cent have enrollments of less than two hundred, and 39.5 per cent less than one hundred. In eighteen states more than half of all buildings in use are one-teacher schools.⁷

From the school library viewpoint, the picture might be less unfortunate were public library resources widely available in rural areas, but they are not. According to figures provided by the American Library Association, out of thirty-five million people in the United States without libraries, thirty-two million live in small villages or open country; and more than six hundred counties—roughly one out of five—are without a single public library.⁸

Against this statistical background, pictures of the independently operated rural school library coming from those who have seen it are distressing. Shortly before the war, Work Projects Administration supervisors attempting to better rural high school library conditions in a populous east central state reported outdated encyclopedias and subscription sets crowding the few readable volumes suitable for youthful consumption, volumes of general reference absent or of small value, and magazines lacking. Books were shabby and falling from bindings. "Classics" elbowed *Barriers Burned Away*, *She*, and a sprinkling of moderns such as *Gone With the Wind* and *The Grapes of Wrath*, relics of well-intended book showers. Of efficient library service there was none.

Such pictures could still be duplicated the country over except where well established state or regional supervision of school libraries has tended to eliminate them through pooling or cooperative arrangements. Working wholly on its own the small rural school gets nowhere with its library. Pooling of resources and centralized management covering an area sufficiently large geographically or wealthy enough to guarantee adequate financial support is the obvious remedy.

Sometimes the county unit meets the situation. But not infrequently scattered population and low tax receipts make it clear that only a regional library arrangement will be adequate—combined library service for schools and the adult public through central administration covering a number of school and civic units.

2. The county circulating library. With no public library agencies in

⁷ U.S. Office of Education. "Statistical Summary of Education, 1939-40." In its *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1938-40*, v.2, chapter 1, p.14.

⁸ American Library Association. *The Equal Chance; Books Help to Make It*. Rev. ed. A.L.A., 1943, p.18.

sight or able to help even when present, county superintendents of schools, sometimes with the help of the state, have ventured upon pooling arrangements whereby small sums available for the purchase of library books in individual school districts are given to the county office for administration.⁹ If total funds are sufficient to cover the salary of a professional librarian and what in many cases is the *sine qua non* of adequate rural service, a bookmobile, the plan has possibilities of success and has been used to advantage. Less ambitious arrangements with a partially trained assistant in charge may represent a real improvement over local school district administration, particularly if use is consistently made in the county office of the many excellent aids to book selection now available. The probabilities are, however, that if there is any chance of organizing centralized administration of county-wide service for schools and the community at large, or of contracting for service from a neighboring municipal library, results will be better.

Where the educational program of the county is functioning through the county unit plan involving the centralization of all aspects of administration and supervision, a central office of school library supervision is as readily created as in a large city school system.

3. *The county library.* The organization known to library literature as the "county library" is a public library organized on a county rather than a municipal or village basis. The line of authority may extend directly from the board of county commissioners to the head librarian, or there may be an intermediate library board.¹⁰ Cities and towns and school districts maintaining separate libraries may or may not enter such an organization. Tax support comes from the county and is ordinarily supplemented by funds appropriated from school districts as they enter the system.

Because of the large area covered, there is one essential difference between the county or regional library and the public library serving city or town. Instead of being primarily an institution to which people come for

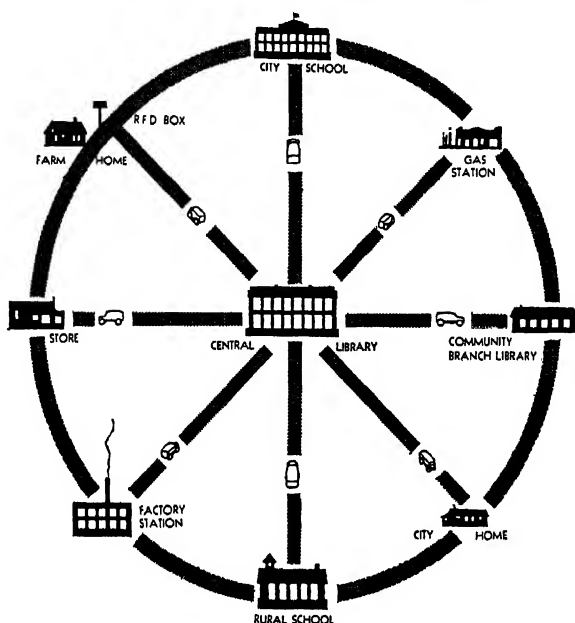
⁹ American Library Association Board on Library Service to Children and Young People. "More Reading Facilities for Boys and Girls." *A.L.A. Bulletin* 32:560, September 1938.

Cecil, H. L., and Heaps, W. A. *School Library Service in the United States*. Wilson, 1940, p.147-48.

National Society for the Study of Education. *Forty-second Yearbook, Pt. II: The Library in General Education*. 1943, p.238-39. (Distributed by the Department of Education, Univ. of Chicago.)

¹⁰ For diagrams illustrative of county organization, see Cecil and Heaps, *op. cit.*, p.155-56.

HOW REGIONAL BOOK SERVICE OPERATES



A coordinated library system reaches every local community and every citizen. Constant interchange of books between the central library and the branches and stations makes any book available to any reader in the entire region.

books and reference service, it is a center from which reading materials are routed to people. (See diagram.)¹¹ They may be sent directly via parcel post or bookmobile, or indirectly through village branches and deposit stations in country stores, grange halls, or any other place where people congregate. Additionally, arrangements are made for service to and through schools, preferably through some plan for cooperative financing.

Where financial aid from the school district is lacking, the county library may still give limited service in the form of classroom libraries, story hours, and bookmobile visits. With financial aid from the schools, a far more comprehensive program may be undertaken, preferably through the organization in the county library of a special office or division of school library work with a competent supervisor in charge. As in a city system, school branches are maintained in larger schools under the direction of trained librarians, while deposit stations and other services are available in smaller schools.

¹¹ Diagram reproduced from American Library Association. *The Equal Chance*, op. cit., p.18.

Participation by individual school districts in the county library plan is voluntary. To join, a district may enter into a contract,¹² the terms of which vary according to local conditions. For example, the school district may give its entire present collection of books to the general pool. In another case it may retain them—at least as many as competent evaluation shows to be useful. A contract may provide for payment to the county library of a lump sum corresponding to the district's entire annual library budget in return for varying degrees of organization and service. More commonly, the contract leaves to the school district responsibility for instituting and maintaining a permanent reference collection and for buying all "supplementary reading." At the same time the district contributes annually on an enrollment or fixed sum basis to the organizational work of the county library and its purchase of recreational and general reading titles for use in schools. Other items which may be covered in a contract are suggested in the tabulation shown on p.372-74, though sometimes the contract is purposely general—a kind of gentlemen's agreement. Whatever the specific arrangements, the school profits by access to greatly enlarged book resources; by deposits of fresh, new books; by bookmobile visits and storytelling hours; and by continuous supervision of the work of teacher-librarians where the size of the school does not warrant the presence of a full-time professional worker. In this connection it is interesting to note experiments in peripatetic librarianship—one well-prepared librarian moving from school to school on a weekly schedule which gives her a day or two in each with teacher-librarians carrying on between times with her help and under her direction.

Before we leave county library service, it should be mentioned that sometimes a school district within the county makes a real contribution to library service for the community at large. This occurs where a school building is in use as a community center—a growing custom in rural districts. In such situations it may be to the advantage of all concerned to locate in the school building a branch of the county library so equipped, so staffed, and so managed as to serve the adult public as well as the school group.¹³

4. The regional library. Regional library service is a service carried a

¹² Examples of contracts may be found in Cecil and Heaps, *op. cit.*, Appendices A-D. See also discussion in Joeckel, *op. cit.*, p.308-11.

¹³ Cf. discussion in this book of branch libraries in school buildings, p.375, and also Engelhardt, N. K., and Engelhardt, N. L., jr. "The Community School Library." In their *Planning the Community School*. American Book, 1940, p.89-97.

step beyond the county. With a few outstanding exceptions,¹⁴ it is still largely in the experimental stage. Once legal barriers have been broken down or modified, a number of civil and educational units (counties, towns, school districts, etc.) located contiguously, or perhaps lying within the same trading area, join together to provide library facilities for the entire region. As Joeckel has pointed out,¹⁵ such experiments are most easily undertaken in territory where library service is practically nonexistent and there is little established practice or local pride to contend with. Where community or school libraries already exist, it may be better to start in small ways by utilizing these units and developing reciprocal services: interlibrary loans, joint book-buying arrangements, joint cataloging, or any other cooperative measures that naturally suggest themselves.

Fully developed, a regional library operates along the same lines as a county library, not utilizing existing facilities alone, but establishing new ones and introducing new and better forms of service.

Where state work, to which we turn next, is well organized, the unification of library service along all the lines indicated in the last few pages is wont to progress much faster than otherwise.

VII. STATE AGENCIES AND SERVICES

1. **Form of organization.** After suggesting that the several states have provided for library service in varied ways and that there has also been variation within the state from time to time, a brochure of the American Library Association¹⁶ embodies the following statements pertinent to the understanding of state service to school libraries:

Library divisions in state departments of education, charged with development both of public and school library service, have been developed in general since 1911, though one such division dates from 1893. When separate state

¹⁴ There are a number of instances where two or more counties have joined together to form regional libraries, and in several cases larger areas have been involved, such as the Fraser River valley in British Columbia and the area embraced in the Tennessee Valley Authority. Consult:

Morison, C. K. "Progress and Poverty in the Fraser Valley." *Library Journal* 64:781-4, October 15, 1939.

National Society for the Study of Education, *op. cit.*, p.240. (Tennessee Valley)

¹⁵ Joeckel, *op. cit.*, p.298-340.

¹⁶ American Library Association Extension Board. *The State Library Agency, Its Functions and Organization*. 5th ed., rev. to November 1945. A.L.A., 1945, p.5.

Because of frequently occurring changes in state organization, this mimeographed brochure is often revised. Statements following will therefore need to be checked with later editions.

library commissions were transferred to the department of education, the commission of citizens was sometimes retained, at least in an advisory capacity, to safeguard interest in public as well as school library service. Library divisions of this extension type are now set up in departments of education in nine states, and in addition, five state libraries have been transferred to departments of education.

State school library supervisors or advisers are found in sixteen states, most of them in departments of education. In six of these cases the general library agency is in that department and the school library supervisor is a part of it, facilitating coordination of public and school library programs. In some other states, school library supervision is assigned to the general state library agency, but there is no full-time supervisor.

2. Functions and services. What is the nature of services coming from the state to the school library? The publication quoted above suggests that it is the function of the state library agency to develop effective, state-wide school library service through:

1. Legislation and regulations of the department of education to ensure recognition of standards; provision for contractual and cooperative service between school libraries and between school and local, county, district or regional public libraries; for state aid and minimum support from local school budgets; for certification of librarians.
2. A program for development of school library service in elementary through secondary schools throughout the state.
3. Determination and administration of standards for school library service and school librarians.
4. Administration of state aid and encouragement of adequate school budget provision for library service.
5. Advisory, supervisory and information service to existing libraries and in library establishment, through field visits, conference, institutes, correspondence and publications.
6. Development of cooperation with other state educational agencies and with individuals and groups responsible for the educational programs of the state.¹⁷

On many of these functions and services it is unnecessary to comment since the student will readily grasp their nature and significance from what has gone before. About others explanatory notes are in order; and some, because they come very close to the librarian in the school, deserve expansion. To begin with, there is financial assistance.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, p.4.

*State aid.*¹⁸—Aid to the school library from the state in the form of monies provided for the purchase of books has a long history. Laws covering such expenditures have been in existence for years. Frequently the aid is provided on a matching basis, the contribution of the state being commensurate with the funds raised in the local school district. Fundamentally, state aid is an effort in the direction of equalization. Tax money collected from the state at large is so distributed as to equalize library opportunities in tax-poor or thinly populated districts with those in richer or more populous areas.

The ways in which state aid is made available are too varied for present enumeration,¹⁹ but they include allocation on such bases as enrollment, number of teachers, or flat rate per school. Aid has also been known to take the form of a large lump sum grant, made by the legislature for the purchase of books by the state department of education, in which department the books are cataloged under direction of the school library supervisor and distributed ready for use to schools according to need.²⁰ In some cases, monies for school library purposes must be budgeted by the local school from state aid received for general educational purposes. Naturally, if school administrators are not interested, it is not so budgeted.

The amount of aid varies widely. Considering the nation as a whole, Dunbar and Lathrop report that the sums received per school library have not been great. Direct financial aid occurs in comparatively few states and even where available has been too small to be effective except, perhaps, where used as a lever to raise standards of book selection. Thus, in a number of cases, state money can be expended only for titles appearing in approved state lists.

One of the arguments recently used in favor of federal aid is the stimulus it may be expected to give state aid.

Book selection, book lists, and book purchasing.—In states where school library service is well organized, especially where a special supervisor is in charge, approved lists are prepared with great care by experts who are in vital touch with the need of the schools for all types of reading. The supervisor of school libraries does not compile all the lists; the job may

¹⁸ Dunbar, R. M., and Lathrop, E. A. "State Aid." In *National Society for the Study of Education*, op. cit., p.247-49.

¹⁹ Consult instead Dunbar and Lathrop, op. cit., and other titles listed under state school library service in the bibliography at the end of this chapter.

²⁰ Shortess, L. F. "State Purchase of School Library Books in Louisiana." *A.L.A. Bulletin* 32:78-80, February 1938.

be delegated to a group or an individual known to have superior qualifications. Recently a number of states have adopted the *Wilson Standard Catalog for High School Libraries* as an approved buying list but themselves issue supplementary lists covering special fields.

Where state lists are prepared they may classify titles according to the Dewey Decimal System and enter them in simple catalog form. The list may thus be checked in lieu of a catalog or its entries copied on cards by the inexperienced teacher-librarian.

There are instances where the state office acts as a cooperative buying agency for local districts. Instead of ordering books directly from a jobber, each school transmits a list of titles wanted to the office of the state supervisor. There all lists are combined and sent as one order to a competent jobber offering the best discounts. Such practice results in more favorable discounts than would be possible in case of a great many small orders. This is true even though in filling the order the jobber routes the books directly to the schools—as he does in most cases.

Publications.—The approved lists mentioned above are perhaps the largest items published by a state school library office. In recognition of its responsibility towards smaller schools managed by teacher-librarians with little preparation there is often issued a manual outlining organizational procedures in simple form and giving practical advice about the management of the library. State standards for school libraries are included and sometimes lesson plans on the use of the library, floor plans, and hints on equipment, prepared in collaboration with state education agencies.

Standards.—State standards for school libraries have been frequently mentioned. These are largely the work of the state office of education operating through or in cooperation with the department of school library supervision, if there is such a department. Enforcement of the standards or their use as instruments of pressure directed at lagging school systems depends upon the knowledge and persistence of the school library supervisor and the interest and backing of the state office of education as a whole. The standards must be wisely interpreted, and equivalents must sometimes be worked out, as when the standard requires the school to own five hundred books and the school owns only four hundred but has access to many more than the required number through its arrangements with the county library and the visits of the bookmobile. In the hands of a competent supervisor, quantitative measures can be and are interpreted in terms of quality of service.

Certification.—In Chapter VI the certification of school librarians through state departments of education was set forth as a most important method of assuring well-prepared professional personnel. Where there is present in the state a special school library agency, the supervisor in charge can be extremely helpful not only in developing the plan of certification but in seeing that it is carried out with intelligence and some degree of flexibility.

Professional education activities.—If personnel standards and certification requirements are to be met there must be a steady flow of properly qualified librarians and teacher-librarians—not too many but enough to meet the demand. Inevitably, therefore, the state agency for school library service is interested in the provision of adequate training facilities, both for the school library expert and for the teacher-librarian. In the main, the education of the expert is the easier to handle, thanks to some thirty accredited library schools scattered throughout the United States and Canada. In the case of the teacher-librarian, some kind of in-service or readily accessible short term preparation is needed. And so the state school library agency fosters the development of appropriate courses in institutions of higher education—especially such as can be offered in the summer when teachers are free to attend. In addition, it may itself hold institutes, workshops, or district conferences where groups of school librarians come together, as do teachers, for inspiration, advice and mutual helpfulness.

Field work.—It should be obvious that state school library work can only be effective insofar as it springs from an intimate knowledge of conditions and personnel in the various school libraries. No amount of office work, publications and standards can wholly take the place of advisory visits, although they may greatly cut down the amount of such visitation. With the employment of more trained librarians, the supervisor does not so often need to organize libraries personally. What she does do in the course of her field visits is to encourage and advise, especially in backward or out-of-the-way localities where, because of small enrollment, isolation or lack of connection with local library agencies, schools look directly to the state for advice and assistance.

Sometimes larger schools also need attention. Perhaps an inspector for the department of education reports that the library in —— school does not meet standards; or the school's report furnished the department gives the clue; or the school principal asks for help. In any case, a school library supervisor visits the community, studies the situation, and makes recom-

mendations. There is, of course, more to the story—supplementary visits, correspondence, personal conferences with the principal during a chance contact at a teachers' institute—anything to help the school on its way to a better library.

Advisory service.—Every state office is a clearinghouse for information. Into it come hundreds of questions, some simple and some complicated. What shall we do to prevent the spending of the entire library appropriation for a set of history books? Instead of providing personal service and reading guidance, should our librarian spend half her time cataloging and classifying? Please recommend a book on how to organize a small school library. Where can we secure illustrated pamphlets on South America? The Parent-Teacher Association plans to give us books—dare we ask for the money instead? Shall I register in a short course for teacher-librarians this summer or save money for that full year of professional study I hope to undertake soon?

To such questions answer is made by letter, by published bulletin, or by personal conference. Often simple, they mean much to principals and conscientious teacher-librarians doing their best under untoward conditions. Such service takes time, and one of the sorest problems of the supervisor is how to avoid being swamped with these minor problems at the expense of leadership in matters of graver import: Should the legislature be approached for more state aid? Should Minerva Woman's College be encouraged to set up a 15-hour curriculum for teacher-librarians when an excellent curriculum is already available at Mid-Western? What should be the state agency's relationship to the movement for FM broadcasting?

Cooperation with other agencies.—Regardless of whether or not the state school library agency is organized under the state library, the state library commission or the state department of education, its most significant contacts will be with the last. When new courses of study are being planned, the supervisor of libraries will naturally be asked to contribute, both by providing information for the curriculum makers themselves and by compiling bibliographies. Library interest in audio-visual education will lead to plans whereby service through books and through films and slides sent out by the visual education division may be made to supplement each other. Officials undertaking educational surveys and studies will look to the library division for professional and statistical information. School building supervisors will seek the office for advice in library planning.

The office also makes contacts with other state departments and with

organizations such as the Red Cross and broadcasting systems and participates in their educational programs. Relationships are close with all library agencies: the state library association; library schools; committees working on surveys and plans; the American Library Association; and the Library Service Division of the U.S. Office of Education. In short, the state school library division acts as clearinghouse and liaison office for all organizations and educational agencies seeking to serve schools through their libraries.

Reports and field studies.—Most state offices send to each school district comprehensive forms by means of which statistical and general information is collected for the department of education or other agencies requiring reports. Besides participating in surveys and field studies conducted by the department of education, the state school library office may also, as it has time and opportunity, engage in studies of its own or cooperate with library organizations engaged in similar activity.

Lending service.—Working through the state library or library extension agency, the school library office helps to make small loan collections available to out-of-the-way schools or those too small or far removed from public library facilities either to provide libraries for themselves or to participate in cooperative plans. Occasionally, the school library agency develops a direct lending service of its own, or puts schools in touch with the traveling library facilities of the state library or the state university. But direct lending by the state except in the case of materials required to meet sudden or unusual demands tends to decrease as county and regional library work expands.

The supervisor.—It is obvious that the duties of state supervisor demand the same high type of personal and professional qualifications as those outlined for the city supervisor. Because of the delicacy of many situations which must be met, especially where there are conflicting interests, there is a growing tendency to substitute "coordinator" or "adviser" for the term "supervisor." With the right person in charge, it has been repeatedly demonstrated that the establishment of a state office of supervision or advisory service can do more than any one thing to encourage, unify, and strengthen library work in and for schools.

VIII. FEDERAL AGENCIES AND THEIR WORK

Attention has been called to the important fact that in the United States the organization and administration of library service is not controlled by

the federal government but by states and lesser governmental units. Federal library legislation, aside from a few laws covering the distribution of documents, special postal rates on library materials, and so on is wholly lacking. National library agencies are either set up to serve governmental departments or to collect and disseminate information and carry on research—not to control libraries, and so far, not to aid in the financing of library service either public or school. Those whose services bear on school library work are surveyed in the next few pages.

1. **The U.S. Office of Education.** The U.S. Office of Education, known earlier as the Bureau or Department of Education, has for years been interested in libraries and library development. Some early reports of the American Library Association were printed by the department, and the Commissioner has made a practice of including information concerning libraries in his published reports. Each *Biennial Survey* includes a two-year summary of library progress (Vol. I) and statistical data (Vol. II) covering many types of libraries. From the school library point of view, the summaries have been more satisfactory than the statistical data, the latter not having been sufficiently analytical. Through the summaries, and some reference to the statistics, it is possible to keep in touch with trends and with phases of school library work receiving special attention throughout the nation. If, as now planned, more detailed statistics can be collected and fully analyzed once in four years, some of the now unanswered questions in school library administration may be clarified. The informative special studies and reports issued by the Office are also of interest. *Laws Affecting School Library Work* (Bulletin no.7, 1940) by Lathrop and Keeseker is a good example.

2. **The U.S. Office of Education Library.** The U.S. Office of Education Library, as the name implies, is an agency maintained by the Office. Its history and the nature of its resources and services have been set forth by its librarians²¹ and in the *Annual Reports* of the U.S. Commissioner of Education. Essentially, it is a library for reference and research, being filled with materials of great value to students of education and to the staff of the Office in particular. Until the organization of the Library Service Division it was responsible for most book lists for schools issued by the Office. Among its other services have been the compilation of bibliog-

²¹ *Library Facilities of the Office of Education.* The Office, 1937. (Reprints from articles in *School Life*, v.21 and 22.) See also U.S. Office of Education. *Annual Report*, 1944, p.11-14, 96-97, for recent statement on resources and plans.

raphies in the educational field, the collection and annual listing of published and unpublished educational theses (available to outsiders through interlibrary loan), the collection of courses of study, college catalogs, educational reports, surveys, etc., and of textbooks. Incidentally, its thousands of old textbooks constitute what is probably the most valuable historical collection of its kind in the United States.

3. **The Library Service Division of the U.S. Office of Education.** This Division was established during the last decade with a staff too small to perform all the duties expected of it. However, under the expanded program of the U.S. Office of Education as announced in the Commissioner's *Annual Report* for 1944, plans call for specialists in the fields of school and children's libraries, college and research libraries, and public libraries; a bibliographer of librarianship; and three research assistants, together with adequate clerical assistance.

The responsibilities of the Division were outlined in a bill signed August 10, 1937, appropriating a small sum for its maintenance. They include:

. . . making surveys, studies, investigations, and reports regarding public, school, college, university, and other libraries; fostering coordination of public and school library service; coordinating library service on a national level with other forms of adult education; developing library participation in federal projects; fostering nation-wide coordination of research materials among the more scholarly libraries, inter-state cooperation, and the development of public school, and other library service throughout the country.

Specific plans enumerated later by the specialist in school and children's library work included studies of professional library education, of unit costs in school libraries, school library resources and personnel, of school libraries in teacher training schools, of school library planning, of library service to young children. Not all the proposed studies have been carried out; and because of the pressure of circumstances, especially the impact of World War II, activities not at first contemplated have been engaged in. The publication of a number of lists and studies already referred to in these pages²² is among the most important accomplishments of the Division.

²² U.S. Office of Education. *500 Books for Children*; Nora E. Beust, comp. The Office, 1940. (Bulletin, 1939, no.11) *Supplement*, 1945.

——— *Unit Costs in a Selected Group of School Libraries*; by Mary E. Crookston. The Office, 1941. (Bulletin, 1941, no.11)

——— *Professional Library Education*; by Nora E. Beust. The Office, 1938. (Bulletin, 1937, no.23) Subtitle: *Introducing the Library*.

Publications and exhibits aside, it is extremely worth while to have a group of specialists in the Office of Education who can bring a library point of view and library information to bear on projects under way in all divisions of the Office, who encourage the use of the Division as a consultative agency and a contact point between libraries and national organizations such as the American Library Association, the National Education Association, and many others.

From the start, relationships with the American Library Association have been so close that there has been no overlapping of function but the finest of cooperation.

IX. FEDERAL AID

Equalization of library service through state aid has long been practiced. But states vary in their ability to provide cultural and educational opportunities. Consequently, there has recently been much agitation for grants or subsidies by the federal government to even disparities in library service. As a follow-up of the report of an Advisory Committee on Education appointed by President Roosevelt (The Reeves report),²³ bills were introduced in both houses of Congress during 1938 and 1939 embodying the main ideas of that report relative to federal grants for library service. For various reasons it was thought best to include aid for school libraries, for the purchase of reading materials, for the outfitting of rooms for school and community libraries, for the training of school librarians, etc., in sections of the proposed legislation recommending large grants for school purposes rather than to ask for separate library appropriations. Permission given the Commissioner of Education to use portions of the proposed adult education grants for "other non-profit purposes" was deemed sufficient authorization for extending aid to rural public libraries and for carrying on research, planning, and demonstration such as had been envisioned in the program of the Library Service Division when it had first been organized.

World War II interrupted consideration of this legislation, but in 1945 library demonstration bills²⁴ were introduced in both houses of Congress. The aim of such legislation would be to assist state library agencies through

²³ Advisory Committee on Education. *Report of the Committee*. Govt. Print. Off., 1938. Summarized in *The Federal Government and Education*. Govt. Print. Off., 1938.

²⁴ Public Library Service Demonstration Bill, H.R.5742, S.1920. (79th Congress, 2d session)

five-year grants in "demonstrating public library service to those people now without it or with inadequate service and to provide a means by which the values of public-library service may be studied and reported to the nation." As this is written (spring 1947) hearings on the bills have been held by the Senate Committee on Education and Public Welfare and it is hoped the necessary legislation may be enacted during this Congress.

Interest in such legislation on the part of those engaged in school library work is keen because of the possibilities for service to schools in rural areas through public libraries. It is hoped that the recent establishment in Washington, D.C. by the American Library Association of a National Relations Office supported by the voluntary contributions of librarians and friends of libraries may facilitate the passage of legislation aimed at better library service through both schools and public libraries.

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CENTRALIZED ADMINISTRATION

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NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION and AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION JOINT COMMITTEE. *Schools and Public Libraries Working Together in School Library Service*. N.E.A., 1941, p.17-57.

Many examples of current practice in centralized administration in selected communities, most of them small cities.

SIMMS, M. *Centralized Performance of Technical Processes for School Libraries*. Columbia University School of Library Service, 1942. (Graduate thesis)

Not available for general circulation, but should be known to supervisors and others involved in the practical problems discussed.

RURAL LIBRARY SERVICE (INCLUDING COUNTY LIBRARY WORK)

AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION. *The Equal Chance; Books Help to Make It.* Rev.ed. A.L.A., 1943.

Graphic portrayal of the need for more extensive library service in the United States, especially in rural areas.

ERSTED, R. M. "Organization of School Library Service in Rural Areas." In *National Society for the Study of Education. Forty-second Yearbook, Pt. II: The Library in General Education.* 1943, p.233-41. (Distributed by the Department of Education, Univ. of Chicago.)

Following a statement of rural school library problems, the advantages in large unit service are summarized and a number of existing plans are described.

DURRELL, T. J. "The County Library and the Rural School." *Library Journal* 63:628-29, September 1, 1938.

A county school superintendent makes a brief and clear statement covering book selection, book truck service, etc., with special relation to units of study.

MORRISON, C. K. "Progress and Poverty in the Fraser Valley." *Library Journal* 64:781-4, October 15, 1939.

An account of regional library service in British Columbia.

WILLCUTT, MARGUERITE. "Pooling the School Library Funds." In *Oregon State Library. Oregon's County Library Service.* The State Library, 1940, p.29-33.

From small beginnings in pooled resources a county library creates a situation in which isolated schools have access to hundreds of dollars worth of reading materials.

WILSON, L. R. "The Extension of Library Facilities in Rural Areas." *School and Society* 49:364-70, March 25, 1939.

"The information is essential to an understanding of the problem of the rural school library."

WILSON, L. R., and WIGHT, E. A. *County Library Service in the South.* Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1935, p.142-64.

Before they discuss county library service in specific southern areas, the authors offer an excellent résumé of the difficulties in financing library work and the necessity for cooperation between schools and public libraries.

STATE SCHOOL LIBRARY SERVICE

AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION. *The State Library Agency; Its Functions and Organization.* (Mimeographed publication for sale by the Association. Ask for latest edition.)

"Functions, form of organization, types of organization recommended, basic principles. Lists of agencies by form of organization, by states."

DUNBAR, R. M., and LATHROP, E. A. "State Supervision, State Aid, and Certification." In National Society for the Study of Education. Forty-second Yearbook, Pt. II: The Library in General Education, 1943, p.241-51. (Distributed by the Department of Education, Univ. of Chicago.)

The history and status of three aspects of state work summarized.

ERSTED, RUTH. "The Library Division and Service to Schools." *Minnesota Library Notes and News* 12:357-60, September 1939.

A state school library supervisor outlines the activities and services of her department.

LATHROP, E. A. "State Financial Support for School Libraries." *School Life* 27:89, December 1941.

Table showing legal provisions for state financial support. Trends are noted and valuable conclusions drawn concerning the relation of library support to general school financing.

FEDERAL AGENCIES AND FEDERAL AID

ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION. Report of the Committee. Govt. Print. Off., 1938. (Summarized in *The Federal Government and Education*. Govt. Print. Off., 1938.)

In response to a request from President Roosevelt, a group of educators outline a program for federal aid to education. Known as the "Reeves report."

AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION SPECIAL COMMITTEE ON FEDERAL RELATIONS TO LIBRARIES. "Report." *A.L.A. Bulletin* 32:231-33; 302, April 1938.

This report was submitted to the Advisory Committee on Education (see above) indicating library needs and recommending a program of federal aid. Appeared also as follows: Joeckel, C. B. *Library Service*. Govt. Print. Off., 1938. (Advisory Committee on Education Staff Study no.11)

BEUST, N. E. "How Will the School Library Specialist Work with School Libraries?" *New Jersey Library Bulletin* (new ser.) 7:16-21, October 1938.

A forecast. Lines of activity actually carried out have been subject to adjustment.

DOUGLAS, E. T. "Library Demonstration Bill Introduced." *A.L.A. Bulletin* 40:157-58, May 1946.

Remarks by Congresswoman Douglas in introducing the Public Library Service Demonstration Bill.

Financial Support and Administrative Control

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| I. Cost Estimates | 1. Board of education control |
| II. Standards | 2. Cooperative support and control |
| III. Practical Procedures in Financing | 3. Public libraries in school buildings |
| IV. Ultimate Responsibility for School Library Service | VI. Local Patterns Pro and Con |
| V. Patterns of Local Support and Control | VII. Informal Cooperation |
| | VIII. Future Patterns |
-

I. COST ESTIMATES

The agency assuming responsibility for school library service also assumes a financial responsibility which gives rise to questions concerning probable cost.

Currently, statistical data covering the cost of school library service are meager. In school accounting, equipment and maintenance are buried in the general budget for such purposes. Standard practice places most other school library expenditures under cost of instruction, or in some systems under "auxiliary agencies." In neither case are expenditures itemized by department.¹

If the public library participates in financing, the situation is even more clouded, not only because two agencies are concerned, but because the cost accounting practices of most libraries do not indicate just how much goes for special services. An item for school library books may appear, and possibly others for cataloging service and salaries. But supplies, transportation, services of the central staff and so on are seldom allocated.

Such data as are available on a number of specific areas of school library

¹ American Association of School Administrators and National Education Association Research Division. *Certain Aspects of School Library Administration*. N.E.A., 1939, p.11. (Circular no.6, 1939)

costs have been discussed in the present text in connection with budget making, salaries, book acquisition, housing and equipment, and so on. (Consult index) To these may here be added the following analytical data on costs taken from a study of eleven school libraries made by Crookston in the U.S. Office of Education:

UNIT COSTS²

Answering a reference or information question.....	\$0.05
Preparing a bibliography.....	1.59
Instructing a class (enrollment 26) one period in library use....	.93
Giving advisory service.....	.04
Circulating a book.....	.02
Acquiring a title.....	.31
Checking a periodical.....	.07
Cataloging and classifying a title.....	.34
Cataloging and classifying a unit of nonbook material (Pamphlets, audio-visual aids, etc.).....	.13

These figures are interesting but are subject to considerable interpretation in the light of the limited number of school libraries reporting and of the compiler's observation that too often high salaried personnel was employed on routine tasks. Possibly the greatest value in the study lies in its method of approach. When more libraries undertake to analyze costs it will be less difficult to answer important financial questions. A few public libraries may have carried similar analyses far enough to be able to state accurately how much their service to schools is costing them.³

In a 1942 report to the North Central Association, Clevenger gave median library expenditures per pupil in the secondary schools of the Association as \$1.49 for schools enrolling less than two hundred, and sixty-two cents for those enrolling one thousand or more.⁴ Cecil and Heaps also quote figures⁵ but for a somewhat earlier period.

² U.S. Office of Education. Library Service Division. *Unit Costs in a Selected Group of High School Libraries*; by Mary Evans Crookston. The Office, 1941, p.22. (Bulletin no.11, 1941)

³ Students interested in such methods of cost accounting in libraries should read the following:

Gage, H. L. "Accounting Systems; Montclair Cost-Finding Procedure." *Library Journal* 62:755ff., October 15, 1937.

Rider, Fremont. "Library Cost Accounting." *Library Quarterly* 6:331-81, 1936.

⁴ Clevenger, A. W., and others. "High School Libraries and Library Service." *North Central Association Quarterly* 17:214, October 1942.

⁵ Cecil, H. L., and Heaps, W. A. *School Library Service in the United States*. Wilson, 1940, p.208-11.

In clarification of what may be considered reasonably satisfactory expenditures, the National Education Association and American Library Association Joint Committee remarks: "It appears that the communities studied that come nearest to providing the prerequisites for school library service in all schools are spending . . . from three to four dollars yearly per pupil for *salaries and materials*." (*Italics ours*)⁶ Until World War II interfered, the American Library Association published annual statistics furnished by some forty or fifty school systems covering expenditures for salaries and books and total expenditures for school libraries.⁷ It is to be hoped these reports may be resumed or that a plan of the Library Service Division of the U.S. Office of Education for the collection and analysis of school library statistics every four years may be carried out.

II. STANDARDS

The first standards for high school libraries adopted in 1918 by the National Education Association and soon approved by the American Library Association set the appropriation for books alone at one dollar per pupil enrolled.⁸ Over the years that standard has remained as a kind of beacon, though in actual practice few school systems have achieved that not unreasonable level of expenditure. During prewar years, state standards tended to run from fifty cents to one dollar per pupil for books and magazines,⁹ but neither state nor accrediting agency standards were always well enforced.

For elementary schools, standards, where they existed, were quite generally lower than for high schools.¹⁰ But standards recently set by the American Library Association Post-War Planning Committees in their *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow* contain the following statement applicable to elementary as well as secondary schools:

⁶ *Schools and Public Libraries Working Together in School Library Service*. N.E.A., 1941, p.59.

⁷ Consult A.L.A. *Bulletin* 36:116-18, 132-33, February 1942 for last compilation.

⁸ National Education Association Committee on Library Organization and Equipment. *Standard Library Organization and Equipment for Secondary Schools of Different Sizes*. A.L.A., 1920. (Known as the Certain standards. For books the standard reads: "50 cents per pupil each term"—presumably \$1 per year per pupil.)

⁹ Cecil and Heaps, *op. cit.*, p.207ff.

Spain, F. L. "The Application of School-Library Standards." In National Society for the Study of Education. *Forty-second Yearbook, Pt. II: The Library in General Education*, 1943, p.274-85. (Distributed by the Department of Education, Univ. of Chicago.)

¹⁰ Cecil and Heaps, *op. cit.*, p.211-12.

Spain, *op. cit.*, p.284.

For the purchase of books, periodicals, and other printed materials and supplies and for rebinding in an organized library unit in a school of 200 pupils or fewer, the minimum annual budget should be not less than \$300. For larger schools a per-pupil annual expenditure of \$1.50 will provide adequate, but not superior, printed resources. Schools with enrollments of more than 1000 can provide good library service on a lower per-pupil expenditure than can the smaller school.

In addition, special provision must be made at least every five years for encyclopedia replacements. Schools not having a minimum active collection of five books per pupil will need larger per capita appropriations till a good basic book collection has been acquired.¹¹

It is to be noted that all the above standards cover only annual expenditures for the purchase and physical care of printed materials with an occasional item for supplies and that they are generally estimated on a per capita basis. As reported by Spain,¹² in only one state is the standard definitely related to other school expenditures. Idaho school law provides that at least 3 per cent of the total school district appropriation be applied to school library purposes. The theory underlying such an arrangement would seem to be that the library expenditures should keep pace with an expanding or contracting educational program. This may turn out to be a fairer and more generally satisfactory standard than one dependent wholly upon enrollment.

III. PRACTICAL PROCEDURES IN FINANCING

As a method of practical procedure in working towards adequate financial support it may be well to set up goals to be achieved over a series of years: funds sufficient the first year to purchase essential equipment plus a good basic collection of reference volumes and other titles sure to be in steady demand; the second year, enough to take care of replacements, enrich the reference collection with additional encyclopedias, etc., and provide more books satisfying special interests; from then on, annual appropriations sufficient to cover replacements and keep the collection alive and gradually growing in richness and breadth.

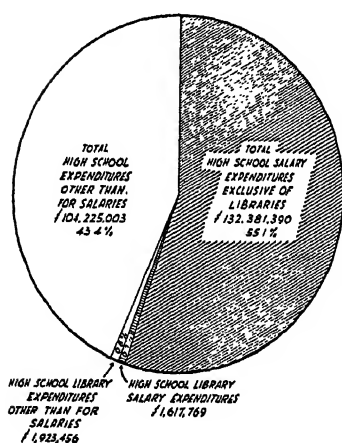
Although it is urged by authorities in educational administration that need rather than expense should be the decisive factor in entering upon

¹¹ American Library Association Committees on Post-War Planning. *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow*. A.L.A., 1945, p.23.

¹² *Op. cit.*, p.277, 285. See also U.S. Office of Education. *Laws Affecting School Libraries*. The Office, 1940, p.10-11. (Bulletin no.11, 1940)

or maintaining a school department or activity, comparative data may nevertheless be useful in securing adequate support for the library. For example, per capita expenditures for the library, which serves all departments of the school may be compared with those for science, commercial subjects, and so on. Where figures have been obtainable, such comparisons in the past have revealed that library expenditures were extremely modest, both for equipment and for annual maintenance. Because of the difficulties incidental to obtaining departmental data, a comparison more easily made is between total expenditures for instruction and expenditures for library service. Where this is tried, the outgo for library service is practically certain to be so small as to appear almost negligible when shown in graphic form. (See diagram)

EXPENDITURES FOR PUBLIC JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS
COMPARED WITH EXPENDITURES FOR THEIR LIBRARIES¹³



AMOUNT SPENT

Expenditures for libraries	
Salaries	\$1,617,769
Other purposes	1,923,456
Total	\$3,541,225

Total expenditures of
schools reporting ..\$240,147,618

PER CENT SPENT FOR LIBRARIES

Salaries007
Other purposes008
Total015

In this connection, the following from a state superintendent of education is significant:

"When organized efficiently, a school library is the cheapest department in terms of service a high school can offer."¹⁴

One dollar, according to this observer, spreads further, reaches more people, and meets more individual needs than a similar amount spent in any other way.

¹³ Data and chart prepared by American Library Association Board on Salaries, Staff and Tenure. See *A.L.A. Bulletin* 33:108, February 1939.

¹⁴ Nebraska State Superintendent of Public Instruction. *Biennial Report*, 1939-41.

IV. ULTIMATE RESPONSIBILITY FOR SCHOOL LIBRARY SERVICE

Since the school library is recognized as an integral part of the public school educational program at all levels, and its objectives are definitely based on that program, responsibility for its support and control belongs to school authorities. But, and this is important, responsibility may be delegated wholly or in part to public library authorities provided satisfactory arrangements can be made for financing, meeting personnel requirements, and so on.¹⁵

Schools and Public Libraries Working Together . . . a report of the Joint Committee of the National Education Association and the American Library Association, states the matter of responsibility unequivocally:

*School library service, being an essential part of the total school program, is basically a responsibility of the board of education. Local boards of education are charged by law with the duty of providing public schools. The school library has been recognized as an essential part of the work of the school and therefore the responsibility of providing for school library service clearly rests on the board of education. There are various ways in which this responsibility may be met. The board may organize and maintain the school libraries or it may delegate their administration in part to other agencies. Many different plans have been found to be practicable. Ultimately, however, the board of education is answerable to the citizens for the educational effectiveness of the school library service.*¹⁶

It may be added that the conclusions of this committee are re-enforced by state legislation which for many years has consistently authorized and often required school districts to appropriate funds for library purposes.

V. PATTERNS OF LOCAL SUPPORT AND CONTROL

Realizing that ultimate responsibility is fixed in the board of education, but that it has power to delegate it wholly or in part to the public library, let us examine prevailing patterns of external administration and support.

1. **Board of education control.** Because the basic responsibility is the school district's, and because so many areas lack public libraries, it is not surprising that control by the board of education is by far the commonest

¹⁵ Joeckel, C. B., and Carnovsky, Leon. *A Metropolitan Library in Action*. Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1940, p.345ff.

¹⁶ National Education Association and American Library Association Joint Committee. *Schools and Public Libraries Working Together in School Library Service*. N.E.A., 1941, p.9.

form of school library control. According to the latest available statistics of the U.S. Office of Education,¹⁷ 96.5 per cent of all school libraries reporting to the Office were controlled by the board of education; 1 per cent by the public library board; 2.3 per cent through cooperative arrangements between public libraries and schools; and 0.2 per cent by "other boards."

When these and similar statistics are analyzed, it appears that more urban than rural school districts currently share control with public libraries. But even in cities, the percentage of cooperative arrangements is small compared with that in which school authorities are in complete control.

Board of education management of school libraries is comparatively simple, although in detail local arrangements vary so widely and are so frequently indefinite and obscure as to make comparisons and generalizations difficult. Taken by and large, the school district in some way makes funds available for the purchase of books, provides for housing them within the school, and appoints someone to take charge. In the best libraries this individual is a professionally prepared librarian, certificated by the state, paid out of the school salary fund on the same schedule as teachers, and responsible to school authorities only. Since financing is solely through the school district, there are no difficulties of the kind that grow out of the fact that school districts and public libraries are two distinct entities geographically and for purposes of taxation. Since the librarian is definitely a member of the school staff, the line of administrative authority is clear-cut. Once fully aware of its responsibility, the school district develops its school libraries with the same thought, pride, and administrative care that it puts into the development of other activities basic to the educational program.

2. Cooperative support and control. Although based on a joint agreement, cooperative support and control is often spoken of as public library administration because the public library assumes chief responsibility for the actual carrying out of the program.

Sometimes that responsibility is limited to certain services stemming from the children's room, the cataloging room, or the extension division: storytelling in schools, library lessons in the children's room, the cataloging and processing of school library books, the provision of classroom libraries.

¹⁷ U.S. Office of Education. "Statistics of Public School Libraries, 1934-35." In its *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1934-36*, p.20-21. The Office, 1938. (Note: Similar statistics for subsequent years have not been issued as this is written but would probably show little change.)

Frequently the public library serves in a limited way elementary schools only, or elementary and junior high, leaving senior high school libraries to function as independent units under board of education control—not the most desirable arrangement since it breaks the continuity of library service as an educational program. Far less frequently, the public library becomes responsible for all school library work, including the management of organized libraries within both elementary and secondary schools.

Elementary schools tend to be given less financial support under all forms of administration. When insufficiency of funds is the excuse, it is usually more justifiable when urged by public libraries than by boards of education. Library boards hesitate to develop school libraries at the expense of service to adults. A librarian writes:

The libraries are legion which have begun "in a small way" to serve the schools because they had no libraries and finally realized that such service not only hindered the development of school libraries but starved certain adult services through greater and greater demands upon personnel and funds. Of course, the children are children of taxpayers, and as such should be served at the library as any other individuals, unless the schools are willing to pay for specialized service requiring otherwise unnecessary expenditures by the library for school library specialists and for collections of books for supplying classroom collections.¹⁸

Varied forms of cooperative management are set forth in detail in several publications¹⁹ with definite reference to the specific localities where the plans exist. In the past, some of the most successful plans have been decidedly informal, being based on what approached gentlemen's agreements. But as school library work has grown in complexity, there is a tendency to enter into formal contracts defining with considerable definiteness the spheres within which each agency is to operate and the aspects of support and control for which it is to be responsible. The following chart based on the investigations of the Joint Committee is indicative of the areas covered in such agreements. It supersedes a less comprehensive chart appearing in earlier editions of the present book.

¹⁸ Aldrich, E. V. "More Marys, Less Marthas." *Wilson Library Bulletin* 18:509, March 1944.

¹⁹ Cecil and Heaps, *op. cit.*, chapter V.

National Education Association and American Library Association Joint Committee, *op. cit.*, p.18-45.

Waples, Douglas, and Carnovsky, Leon. *Libraries and Readers in the State of New York*. Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1939, p.110-19.

DIVISION OF ACTIVITIES IN SCHOOL LIBRARY SERVICE²⁰PUBLIC
LIBRARYBOARD OF
EDUCATION1. *Providing rooms for school library service*

A

B

Pupils go for library experience to main library or neighborhood branch; public library pays for building service

School library rooms in school buildings; board of education pays for building service (heat, light, cleaning)

2. *Providing furniture, supplies, and equipment*

A

B

C

D

Public library buys furniture, equipment, and supplies

Board of education buys furniture, (tables, chairs, office desks); public library buys library equipment (catalog, periodical rack, charging desks) and supplies

Board of education buys furniture and equipment; library buys supplies

Board of education buys furniture, equipment, and supplies

3. *Providing support for school library service*

A

B

C

Public library budget includes total direct cost of school library service

Board of education and public library budgets both include a part of the direct cost of school library service

Board of education budget includes total direct cost of school library service

4. *Handling funds for school library service*

A

B

C

D

E

Public library handles all expenditures for the whole program; board of education makes no direct expenditures for school library service

Board of education turns over to public library all money used for libraries; public library spends additional amount

Board of education spends part of its own money for school libraries; makes contribution to public library for part of the school service; public library spends additional amount

Board of education spends its own money for school library service; public library spends definite amount for supplementary service

Board of education spends its own money for all school library service; public library makes no direct expenditure

²⁰ Op. cit., p.19-21.

5. *Coordinating and directing school library service*

A	B	C	D
Public library school department staffed by library appointees who coordinate school library service; schools have no library department	Public library school department headed by a supervisor whose appointment is concurred in by board of education; schools have no library department of their own	Schools have a school library department headed by a board of education appointee; public library also has a school department headed by a library appointee	Schools have a school library department headed by supervisor employed by board of education; or there is no central supervision of school libraries except thru school principals and superintendent

6. *Selecting, appointing, and supervising school library personnel*

A	B	C	D	E
Selected, appointed, and supervised by public library	Selected jointly by library and board of education; appointed and supervised by library	Selected jointly by library and schools; appointed by board of education; supervised by library	Selected and appointed by board of education; supervised by library	Selected and appointed by board of education; supervised by school officials

7. *Paying salaries of school library personnel*

A	B	C	D
All paid by public library	Paid by library; board of education reimburses for part of total	Paid by board of education; library reimburses for part of total	All paid by board of education

8. *Providing books and other materials for centralized school libraries*

A	B	C
Public library installs entire permanent collection; also makes interlibrary loans	Board of education provides permanent reference collection; public library provides long-time deposits, also interlibrary short-time loans	Board of education provides entire permanent collection; interlibrary loans available from public library

9. *Providing books and other materials for classroom library collections*

A	B	C	D
Public library supplies permanent reference books and in addition provides loan collection to all classrooms on systematic plan	Public library provides loan collection to all classrooms on systematic plan; board of education supplies reference books of the encyclopedia type	Board of education supplies encyclopedias and a few books of library type; public library provides loan collections on request	Board of education provides permanent classroom library collections; other books for loan from school depository or centralized school libraries; public libraries called on rarely for classroom loans

3. **Public libraries in school buildings.** Some cooperative plans place public libraries in school buildings—in small communities, the main library; in larger ones, branches.

In commenting on such arrangements investigators have not always taken care to distinguish between branches intended for use by the school only—in other words, specialized school libraries—and branches operated for joint use by the school and the adult public. In the latter case, the public library sets out to serve two diverse groups, while in the first instance it serves one only, the round of its activities being fully dependent on the school program.

The impelling motive is economy—in plant, in maintenance, in staff, and in the book collection. It is undoubtedly less costly to house and maintain a community library in the school building than to construct and maintain a separate edifice. But if, as now generally advocated, the city school building is located apart from main centers of traffic instead of close to them as a public library should be, adult attendance may be difficult or impossible to achieve. When it comes to maintenance, vacation service and differences in hours presuppose additional janitorial help, and special arrangements for heating and lighting. Again, school groups and the general public do not mix well. If each group is to engage in the kind of activity best suited to it, some degree of segregation will be necessary. Storytelling and social activities cannot very well go on in a room where adults have settled themselves for a period of quiet reading. Except in situations where adults are so employed as to be free chiefly at hours when school is not in session, separate quarters are imperative; and that

necessity, as well as diversification of activities, means additional staff, including a school library specialist. Where books are concerned there are also difficulties to be surmounted. Relays of high school pupils monopolizing certain shelves are a distinct disadvantage to the adult public unless duplicate volumes are provided. In order to make sure that varied materials in demand from both groups are available when needed, duplication and segregation or limitations on circulation have to be resorted to. On the other hand, many titles must be provided for one group which are not suitable for use by both groups. In view of considerations such as these, economies can easily be overestimated, and service for either group, or for both, can readily become unsatisfactory.

This is not to say that the plan cannot be made to work. On the contrary, it can; and to quote from a committee of librarians and educators interested in joint occupancy of school premises, it may bring about greater mutual understanding of library and school problems and result in:

. . . making the public library's entire book resources better known and more accessible to teachers; making books more available to pupils, especially at the beginning of the long vacation season when they leave school. . . , and making it easier for the library staff to know better the interests, needs, and problems of the schools as they pertain to library service.

To insure these desirable results, the Committee recommends adherence to these specifications:

1. The space should be adequate both for adult and student library patrons.
2. Separate reading rooms should be provided for adults and pupils. Especially should no adults be expected to use a reading room which serves as a study hall for pupils nor should the adult reading room be used for class purposes while open to adult readers.
3. The adult library reading room should be designed so that it can be efficiently operated as a separate unit at times when school is not in session. This requires unit heating and ventilating, toilet facilities in or near the library portion of the building, a separate outside library entrance, and a gate or other means of preventing access to the main part of the building from the library.
4. The adult library room should be easily seen and easily accessible from the street. The approach and entrance should be well lighted at night, and there should be a minimum of stairs to climb from the street.
5. In addition to reading rooms, two small enclosed rooms should be provided, one for the librarian's office and the other as a work and supply

room. There should also be facilities for [pupil] conferences and other desirable purposes.²¹

VI. LOCAL PATTERNS PRO AND CON²²

Enough was given in Chapter XV concerning the advantages of centralized library service for small communities through county, regional, or nearby city libraries to make it unnecessary to go into the matter again. In such communities cooperation represents the difference between having effectively organized libraries and library service and no organization and no service at all.

When we come to larger or wealthier school districts well able to support school libraries without outside help the relative values in independent as opposed to cooperative support and control become real issues. Here, as Joeckel and Carnovsky suggest,²³ arguments have frequently exhibited more heat than light. As we glance in the following pages at points that deserve serious consideration it is assumed that (a) all large elementary and secondary schools are entitled under any form of support and control to well equipped, professionally staffed, efficiently organized and active libraries within their own walls or immediately adjoining the school building; and that (b) lesser schools are entitled to permanent collections of usable curricular and reference materials attractively housed, plus circulating collections of recreational literature and other materials for which there is a changing demand, plus supervision and miscellaneous extension services from a central office.

SUMMARY OF ARGUMENTS FOR AND AGAINST COOPERATIVE SUPPORT AND CONTROL

PRO. Cooperation means financial economy because business, technical, and mechanical processes can be carried on according to standard public library routines in a common office by a common staff. In smaller communities, the office may be housed under the schoolhouse roof.

CON. Granting economy in housing, it is to be remembered that much of the economy in a combined staff is lost unless procedures are uniform

²¹ Ohio Library Association and Ohio Education Association Joint Committee. "Suggestions for Library and School Postwar Planning." *Wilson Library Bulletin* 19:129, October 1944.

²² These are set forth with thoroughness and impartiality in Miles, Arnold, and Martin, *L.A. Public Administration and the Library*. Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1941, p.103-36.

²³ Joeckel and Carnovsky, *op. cit.*, p.330, 336.

for the entire system. But the methods used by the public library in cataloging, classifying, and processing may be too elaborate for or unsuited to school purposes—confusing to boys and girls and a waste of time in their elaborateness. If to meet this situation special routines must be devised and a special staff employed in the central office, the argument from economy loses weight.

PRO. Other economies should be considered. If schools have access to the extensive collections of the public library, titles available there need not be duplicated in the school. Pupils can carry on their reference work in the public library. Many books needed in connection with special projects or to supplement texts can be had there as well as a wide range of recreational reading.

CON. The use of public library reference materials by school groups may, and often does, create serious difficulties. Hordes of young people flooding into the reference rooms and monopolizing resources and staff definitely interfere with service to other groups. Both adult patrons and reference librarians inquire pointedly why schools do not provide materials sufficient to satisfy the demands they create.

Like difficulties occur in the case of other library resources. The argument from economy breaks down when all along the line books must be duplicated and made available where needed if they are to meet the requirements of adult and school groups both. Commenting on such duplication, the National Education Association and American Library Association Joint Committee calls attention to the fact that considerations of economy may no more justifiably be allowed to dictate in library situations than elsewhere. It is not unnecessary duplication, they insist,

to have books where they are needed, even tho the same titles may be found in more than one place. Many other types of equipment are duplicated by schools and other public agencies; one does not question the fact that adding machines are found in both city hall and the school offices, or that lathes and machine tools are found in both city repair shop and the school vocational classes. They are not used steadily, but at times it is necessary to have them and they are available when needed.²⁴

In the case of recreational titles, the influence of accessibility (suggested earlier in Chapter III) must not be overlooked. The minimum requirement for the school library is enough recreational books to create a whole-

²⁴ *Op. cit.*, p.59.

some reading appetite, and the further the school can go in this field the better, not only because of the advantages in accessibility, but also because the collection can be selective, books being definitely chosen for young readers rather than for mixed groups.

PRO. Under public library administration, books can readily be transferred from one unit of the system to another as use and special demands dictate.

CON. True. But where school library service is centralized in a board of education office, titles unused in one school can just as readily be transferred to another while materials needed for unusual projects can usually be secured from public library agencies as short time loans.

PRO. Librarians in schools and the supervisor in the public library office are in constant touch with library-minded personnel and have a library mind-set and professional point of view which they may lose in the absence of such association. Through public library book clinics and similar activities, they gain a broader and more critical knowledge of current literature than is possible to an individual isolated in a school library.

CON. A library mind-set overdeveloped on public library lines has possibilities of becoming disastrous. It has been known to prevent librarians from fully appreciating the nature and objectives of school library service and from cooperating in the school program intelligently and wholeheartedly. As to book clinics, those in which teachers, educational supervisors, and school librarians participate under centralized school management may be more valuable to the school librarian. Nor need the school librarian be excluded from public library book evaluation if she is willing to participate on a voluntary basis. In practically all cases she is more than welcome.

PRO. Joint administration means that the school librarian works under the general direction of a sympathetic, understanding supervisor who is a competent librarian in constant touch with library problems and so able to give valuable advice and support in administrative and other situations with which school administrators may be unfamiliar.

CON. The supervisor who is a member of the public library staff may have a better understanding of library administration than of school administration and methods, and so be unable to appreciate the school point of view. In case of disagreement, who decides? The public library as represented by the supervisor, or the school system as represented by the principal? May the line of authority not be obscure?

PRO. When support and control are cooperative, the library welfare of the community as a whole gets proper consideration. Neither public library nor school library develops at the expense of the other. Service is equalized, and opportunities for joint housing and the joint employment of personnel are not overlooked as at present they frequently are.

CON. It is true that library service for the community as a whole is too frequently overlooked by the school, but the real answer may lie in voluntary cooperation rather than in consolidation.

PRO. Library work controlled wholly by the school becomes regimented. Pupils learn to dislike reading and to hate libraries rather than to enjoy them. The "library habit" fails to eventuate. Once out of school, young people cease to use libraries.

CON. The best school libraries are not regimented, regardless of control. The set of educational thinking is in the other direction. Thoughtful school administrators recognize in school libraries a priceless antidote for mass production methods in education and encourage in every way the atmosphere of freedom and service to the individual to which libraries are dedicated.

It is regrettably true that out-of-school youth is far too frequently lost to the public library.²⁵ But to date no statistical data are available to prove that joint control of school libraries does any better than board of education control in permanently establishing the library habit, although data here and there locally collected do indicate that as school libraries increase in efficiency, reading and other use of public library resources by pupils climb. It is the kind of service rendered by the school library that counts most—not the form of administration. May it not be possible that some blame rests with the public library itself for lack of success in holding young people²⁶—ineffective publicity, lack of understanding and of the right books, failure to develop youth activities commensurate with those of the children's room? There is reason to think so, and in recent years many public libraries have gone earnestly to work to remedy the situation.

Without going further into the pros and cons of cooperative support and control, it is to be noted that where cooperation is being inaugurated

²⁵ Bell, H. M. *Youth Tell Their Story*. American Council on Education, 1938, p.172-80.

²⁶ Beals, R. A. "The Public Library as an Agency for General Education." In *National Society for the Study of Education. Forty-second Yearbook, Pt. II: The Library in General Education*. 1943, p.104-6. (Distributed by the Department of Education, Univ. of Chicago.)

Waples and Carnovsky, *op. cit.*, p.61-63.

certain administrative and professional problems should be faced squarely. Salary differentials and inequalities in hours and vacations require adjustment—especially when the school librarian's salary is paid by the public library and she functions as a member of that staff. The librarian assuming actual conduct of the library within the school must be prepared to meet certification requirements set up by the state board of education. Care must be taken to define financial responsibility so adequately that situations will not arise where each agency looks to the other to shoulder specific expenses.

Cooperative plans require arrangements with accrediting agencies relative to equivalent services and resources. If the public library believes that bookmobile visits and circulating book collections should be the equivalent of the five hundred volumes or so of recreational and background reading that state or accrediting association standards require to be present on the shelves, negotiations looking towards the establishment of a scale of equivalents acceptable to the accrediting agency must be undertaken. As a matter of fact, equivalents for services and books are currently permitted under proper conditions by five states. In drawing up equivalents involving bookmobile service it has been suggested that while bookmobile visits are desirable supplements to organized libraries in schools of two hundred or so, it is unsatisfactory and time-consuming to allow all children to select directly from the conveyance. In one-room schools or those enrolling less than two hundred where direct selection is allowed, it is important to have the entire bookmobile stocked with children's and young people's books rather than partly stocked with adult titles for use at adult stops. It is likewise important to have the visits so scheduled as to contribute to the educational program rather than to interrupt it.

The observations of several impartial students of cooperative school library support and control provide a fitting end to discussion of the subject. Writes Stallmann, "the best guess seems to be that the most economical system is the one in the hands of the best administrators."²⁷ Adds Carnovsky in the same volume, "Differences of opinion as to the most efficient type of school library organization can be resolved only in terms of evidence concerning the results achieved."²⁸

²⁷ National Society for the Study of Education. *Forty-second Yearbook, Pt. II: The Library in General Education*. 1943, p.226. (Distributed by the Department of Education, Univ. of Chicago.)

²⁸ *Ibid.*, p.351.

To these should be added the cogent observation of the National Education Association and American Library Association's Joint Committee in their *Schools and Public Libraries Working Together* . . . ²⁹ that a factor frequently not taken into consideration when reports are made on the success or failure of cooperative control is the matter of attitude—an all-important but intangible element. With good will on both sides, cooperative plans are likely to work; without it, they fail. Two other observations of the Joint Committee require underlining; namely, that “one procedure is more economical than another only when there are better returns for every dollar spent,” and that “school libraries that meet the educational needs of pupils are worth what they cost, whoever pays the bill.”³⁰

VII. INFORMAL COOPERATION

Opportunities for informal cooperation between school libraries and public libraries occur wherever the two types exist. Many methods have been suggested. Simple examples are: notice furnished the public library reference department of school assignments or projects; notes from the school librarian introducing pupils to specific departments of the public library; invitations to use the public library enclosed in the diplomas of graduating classes; visits to the school by public librarians and visits by classes to the public library for reading and for instruction in library use; loans of special materials, including visual aids, by the public library; participation by school librarians in book selection clinics maintained by the public library; publicity for public library reading lists and distribution of the same through the school library; advice on the planning and equipment of school libraries furnished by the public library, and also advice on organizational routines.

Such forms of voluntary cooperation are fairly common. Among those existing here and there which should be more prevalent are:

Study groups — teachers' clubs, library clubs, or both — each group familiarizing itself through visits, talks and serious study with the aims, programs, and services of the institution with which the other is connected.

Leadership meetings in which pupil representatives from various schools participate in one-day institutes held in the public library for consideration

²⁹ *Op. cit.*, p.46. See also Fargo, L. F. *The Superintendent Makes a Discovery*. A.L.A., 1931, p.22-23.

³⁰ *Op. cit.*, p.59.

of library services and library problems in which pupils are concerned or interested.

Pupil work experience in public libraries arranged through school library clubs or as units in the work experience program of the school.

Exchange of purchase lists between school and public library.

Curriculum committee meetings held in the public library with young people's and children's librarians participating, particularly in bibliographic work and book selection.

Informal agreements between public library and school administrators defining the areas of library service to be undertaken in the institutions they represent.

Attendance by public librarians at special teachers' meetings and supervisory conferences.

Conference and joint committee work covering general and special aspects of reading guidance including work with handicapped or retarded readers and out-of-school youth.

Under the heading "Specifics of Cooperation" in *Schools and Public Libraries Working Together* . . .³¹ many more examples of cooperation are listed in detail. Later, in summing up the whole matter of cooperation and indicating methods for bringing it about, the Committee makes an observation that no school librarian should ever forget:

The individual teacher and the individual librarian are the people who ultimately will carry to success or failure any plan for friendly working relationships between schools and public libraries. The professional education of both these workers should include information about and experience in public libraries and school libraries in their relation to each other and to the day-by-day experiences of children in school Human relationships are evolutionary rather than static, and this evolutionary quality should be recognized in the working relationships between the public library and the schools. A plan agreed upon may develop into something rather different after several years of experience. It is suggested that an annual review and appraisal be made of the existing plan of operation — whether informal mutual assistance or formal cooperation. A joint committee of school employees and library employees, not limited to those actually working on school library service, could make this annual review. Their report, and any recommendations that might be made, would be transmitted to the lay governing boards of the two agencies. It is not proposed that minute details of procedure should be routinized, altho any detail of procedure that becomes a problem should receive attention. General questions should be considered regarding the scope and adequacy of the service and possible lines for improvement.³²

³¹ *Op. cit.*, p.45-57.

³² *Ibid.*, p.63.

VIII. FUTURE PATTERNS

Viewing the rapid development of school library work in the last two or three decades, public librarians here and there are beginning to wonder whether, as a natural evolution, much work with younger boys and girls is on the way to being dropped by public libraries and turned over to schools, thus dividing responsibility equitably, placing service where it reaches all children rather than the fraction frequenting the children's room, and leaving the public library free to develop its services to the adult community more intensively.³³ Somewhat less revolutionary thinking suggests that without doing away with service to children, public libraries may in the future largely remove it to schools because that is where children are, where modern methods of transportation make it safest for them to congregate, and where suitable quarters may be provided without the expense of constructing and maintaining branch children's rooms.³⁴

From the educational side come other revolutionary proposals. We know that in a number of states responsibility for the improvement and general direction of library service through both public libraries and schools is centered in the state department of education. The school district form of public library support and control³⁵ provides an example of local administration more or less dependent upon school authorities. Readers of educational literature are aware that for many years certain students of education have presented the claims of the board of education to control over all community educational agencies, including public libraries. Going further, the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association in 1939 recommended³⁶ that local boards of education be superseded by public education authorities in charge, not only of public schools and public libraries, but of public recreation also. In the eyes of the Commission, unified control of public and school libraries is justified by a growing similarity in methods and service to much the same population. The first steps, they point out, can be undertaken in cities and communities of appropriate size by contractual arrangements such as those

³³ Unger, Nell. "Shall We Surrender?" In *Institute of Library Work with Children. Proceedings*. Univ. of California School of Librarianship, 1939, p.132-39.

³⁴ See Roden, C. B. "Standards for the Public Library Book Collection." In Danton, E. M., ed. *The Library of Tomorrow*. A.L.A., 1939, p.93.

³⁵ For full discussion of the school district form of public library organization see Joeckel, C. B. *Government of the American Public Library*. Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1935, p.116ff.

³⁶ National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators Educational Policies Commission. *Social Services and the Schools*. N.E.A., 1939, p.x-xi.

discussed earlier in these pages, and they recommend that school authorities take the initiative in planning cooperation. Community branches in school buildings, they suggest, are steps in the right direction.

Students of school library administration should read the entire report, or at least the summary of its main proposals set forth by Cecil and Heaps.⁸⁷ They may then ponder whether the complete centralization proposed by the Commission is desirable in large and small communities alike, and whether library service, being a comparatively small item in the total of educational activity, would be in danger of getting lost in the shuffle, receiving neither the attention nor the support that it deserves. While pondering, they do well to bear in mind that broad coverage does not in itself guarantee efficiency, that excellence of library service is more important than economy, however desirable the latter may be, and that it is possible to emphasize similarities in service at the expense of desirable specialization. There are librarians who think these considerations serious enough to invalidate proposals such as those of the Commission. Others believe them to be negligible. It is well for librarians in the making to keep an open mind. The Commission itself recognizes the dangers,⁸⁸ but states that "the whole configuration of attitudes toward the matter could be changed by a broader viewpoint on the part of boards of education," meaning a better perception by such boards of the importance of library service to school and community, resulting in generous support, financial and otherwise, of library programs.

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⁸⁷ *Op. cit.*, p.229-32.

⁸⁸ *Op. cit.*, p.33-34.

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(See also entries under Rural Library Service, Chapter XV, Bibliography, p.362.)

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MILES, ARNOLD, and MARTIN, LOWELL. "The Public Library and Formal Education." In *Their Public Administration and the Library*. Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1941, p.103-36.

Excellent analysis of school and library relationships.

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FINANCE (SEE ALSO STANDARDS)

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AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION COMMITTEES ON POST-WAR PLANNING. *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow*. A.L.A., 1945. ("Planning for Libraries," no.5).

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A check list for the qualitative evaluation of school library service which includes such items as book budget, salaries, etc.

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Professional Organizations

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| I. Library Associations | 1. National and regional organizations |
| 1. The American Library Association | 2. State and regional organizations and agencies |
| 2. State library associations | |
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I. LIBRARY ASSOCIATIONS

1. The American Library Association.

History.—The American Library Association is the national organization of librarianship, the agency through which the profession speaks with the most authority. It maintains headquarters in Chicago where a paid professional staff devotes itself to furthering library work and looks after the interests of the profession generally. Very early it showed an interest in work with children. In the records of the Association the extension of such work into the school is evidenced by the appointment of committees on cooperation with schools and in a steady increase in the number of school library discussions in its programs. Throughout this period, the name of Mary E. Hall stands out as the number one pioneer in the school library field. Finally, in 1915, the organization of a special school library section was authorized. Through programs and committee work, this section did much to foster a professional spirit among school librarians, and to keep them, as well as the Association at large, in touch with current developments in this rapidly expanding field.

Closely related to the section, and working intimately with it over a considerable number of years, was a standing committee first known as the Education Committee and later as the School Libraries Committee. This committee was responsible for preparing the first substantial publication of the American Library Association relating wholly to school libraries: *School Library Yearbooks*, nos. 1 to 5 (1927-31). Into the work of the committee went volunteer activities of librarians now famous in the history

of the school library movement: among them, Martha Wilson, Harriet Wood, and Marion Lovis.

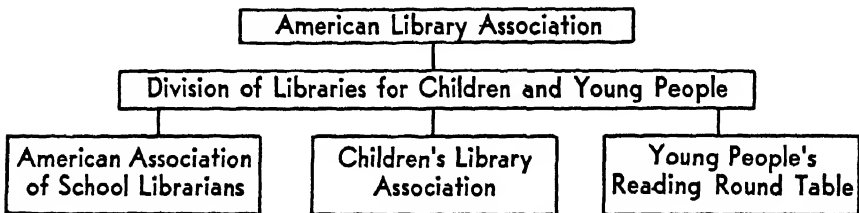
The Division of Libraries for Children and Young People.—During these years of growth the relationships between groups working with boys and girls in schools and those serving them in public libraries were not as close as good sense showed they should be. Accordingly there was launched in 1941 the present Division of Libraries for Children and Young People whose objectives as stated in the 1945 American Library Association Handbook are:

. . . to promote librarianship and library service for children and young people in all types of libraries and to cooperate with library and educational groups in the promotion of enterprises affecting the welfare of youth.

According to its constitution:

One general and one business meeting are held during the annual conference of the American Library Association and both program and business meetings are held by the sections and constituent groups.

The accompanying diagram shows the proposed relation, to be discussed at the A.L.A. Conference June, 1947, between the Division and its constituent groups. As originally organized the Children's Library Association and Young Peoples Reading Round Table were under a Public Library Section of the Division.



The American Association of School Librarians (shown in the diagram) is the organization of paramount interest to school librarians. This name was adopted in 1944 for the earlier School Library Section. Among the projects undertaken by the Association have been preparation of a statement of postwar standards for school libraries; the sharing of responsibility for the "List of Books for Young People" appearing in *The Booklist*; the formation of a committee to investigate the responsibilities and opportuni-

ties for cooperative work on the part of school libraries for providing materials for adult education classes held in high schools; a study of needs in the field of training for school librarians; the establishment of closer professional relationships between English and American school librarians through the exchange of an informal newsheet devoted to significant projects and notes on new publications; cooperation with the Library Division of the U.S. Office of Education in collecting useful information and in promoting better school library planning.

Every professionally-minded school librarian will without doubt wish to be enrolled as a member of the American Association of School Librarians. The method is simple. Annual dues paid to the American Library Association entitle the sender to membership in any group of her choice, without an additional fee. If she is enrolled as a member of the American Library Association and the American Association of School Librarians, 20 per cent of her membership fee is budgeted for work with children and young people. As a kind of bonus she receives the Division bulletin, *Top of the News*, which keeps her informed of the work of various committees and of projects under way involving library service to boys and girls through public libraries as well as through schools.

Miscellaneous boards and divisions.—It is not alone through school library instrumentalities that the American Library Association contributes to the school library movement. From its nonprofit Publishing Department come professional tools for school librarians. Through its Board of Education for Librarianship the Association fosters recruiting for library work, and furnishes information and advisory service to professional library schools and to other educational institutions maintaining or about to inaugurate courses for teacher-librarians. It also acts as the accrediting agency for professional library schools. The Library Extension Division works cooperatively with all persons and agencies interested in the extension of library service to the entire population of the United States, especially in rural areas through either school or public libraries.

International relationships.—In all aspects of its work, the American Library Association makes a point of cooperation with other cultural, social, and educational agencies here and abroad. From the school library point of view such cooperation is likely to be even closer as schools both here and elsewhere are modernized and reorganized with more emphasis than formerly on library service.

The development of school library service in Great Britain during the

last two decades presents unique opportunities for the exchange of ideas and methods. Largely because of the pioneer efforts of such leaders as Monica Cant, the English school library movement was already well under way before the war. In 1936 a school libraries section of the (British) Library Association had been formed, taking its place beside an already existing School Librarians Association; and a report of a Committee of Inquiry of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust pointing out appalling lack of school library facilities and personnel had brought immediate results in the establishment of a summer course for teacher-librarians. The adoption of a revolutionary new plan for British education¹ has further emphasized the importance of school library service. One of the new regulations of the national Board of Education made the presence of a library in every secondary school an essential minimum requirement.

Through the new *International School Library News*, issued by the American Association of School Librarians, American school librarians may become better informed concerning these and other forward strides in school library work throughout the world. But the *British School Library Review* and the spicy school library column of the *Library Association Record* should still be required reading for all American school librarians in the making, as well as for those who have arrived.

2. *State library associations.* State and regional library associations may and do exist as chapters of the American Library Association. In the local area they carry on much the same type of activities as does the national organization. Without similar facilities for publication, however, they look largely to the American Library Association for professional literature not available through their own state libraries or library agencies. In these local library associations, school librarians are represented in special sections. There may also be special school library committees, and at annual conferences school library affairs get general attention through reports, speakers on the main program, and so on.

II. EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS AND LIBRARIES

1. *National and regional organizations.* Much of the impetus in the direction of better school library service has since the beginning of the century come from educational organizations. As early as 1896 the National Education Association had developed a school library department under

¹ Dent, H. C. "England Proposes." *Nations Schools* 33:47-48, May 1944.

the leadership of Melvil Dewey.² By 1913 the department was in close touch with the committee on the reorganization of the English curriculum, the report of which, appearing in 1917,³ set a high standard for the library in the high school. In the meantime there had been organized in 1915 the Library Committee of the Department of Secondary Education of the National Education Association. Beginning with a survey of school library conditions, this committee, together with one from the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, compiled and presented to the two organizations the famous report on *Standard Library Organization and Equipment for Secondary Schools*,⁴ shortly afterwards approved and published by the American Library Association. The report, *Elementary School Library Standards*,⁵ following in 1925 appeared first under educational sponsorship in the *Fourth Yearbook* of the National Education Association Department of Elementary School Principals and was later approved and printed by the American Library Association.

As time went on, there was continuously evident in educational circles a desire to make the school library the subject of careful study. In 1928 there appeared the report of the North Central Association Special Committee on Libraries⁶ based on findings obtained through the use of a *Score Card* prepared by Martha Wilson. The Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States, having some years earlier set up progressive standards for high school libraries, sponsored a study of libraries in its accredited schools made by Doak S. Campbell of the Division of Surveys of George Peabody College for Teachers.⁷ This was followed very shortly by a nation-wide survey entitled *The Secondary School Library*

² The historical summary which follows was first published in earlier editions of *The Library in the School*. It has been repeated with the addition of amplifying details in Cecil, H. L., and Heaps, W. A. *School Library Service in the United States*. Wilson, 1940, p.63-67.

³ National Joint Committee on English. *Reorganization of English in Secondary Schools: Report . . . Compiled by James Fleming Hosc.* U.S. Bureau of Education, 1917. (Bulletin no.2)

⁴ National Education Association Committee on Library Organization and Equipment. *Standard Library Organization and Equipment for Secondary Schools of Different Sizes*. A.L.A., 1920.

⁵ National Education Association and American Library Association Joint Committee. *Elementary School Library Standards*. A.L.A., 1925.

⁶ North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools Special Committee on Libraries. "High School Library Study." *North Central Association Quarterly* 3:246-88, September 1928.

⁷ Campbell, D. S. *Libraries in the Accredited High Schools of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States*. George Peabody College for Teachers, 1930.

which appeared (1932) as a part of the National Survey of Secondary Education.⁸

Later years witnessed the publication (1940) of the *Evaluative Criteria* for school libraries of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards.⁹ These years have also seen numerous joint committee studies and lists, both national in scope. Outstanding educational organizations participating in joint studies with various groups in the American Library Association have been the National Education Association and the National Council of Teachers of English. To the cooperative efforts of these organizations librarians owe such publications as *The School Library Is*, a broadside widely distributed among school administrators, stating in a nutshell the reasons for having a school library, its activities, and its services; also an attractive folder illustrating the activities of the elementary school library; and the more recent *Schools and Public Libraries Working Together*,¹⁰ frequently referred to in foregoing chapters.

Other examples of joint committee projects are the frequently revised American Library Association, National Education Association, and National Council of Teachers of English Joint Committee book lists.¹¹

The most outstanding recent publication dealing with school libraries coming from the educational field is *The Library in General Education* appearing in 1943 as Part II of the *Forty-second Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education.¹² Here may be found the measured reactions of educational experts to the school library, together with mature thinking about its functions and services based on the latest factual information. Many librarians assisted in the preparation of the *Yearbook*; but its appearance under the name of one of the most respected and scholarly of educational organizations is itself indicative of the importance attached by educational leaders to library service.

2. State and regional organizations and agencies. Many state and regional organizations are actively interested in school library affairs and

⁸ National Survey of Secondary Education. *The Secondary School Library*. U.S. Office of Education, 1932. (Bulletin no.17. Monograph no.17.)

⁹ Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards. *Evaluative Criteria; F, Library Service*. The Study, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C., 1940.

¹⁰ National Education Association and American Library Association Joint Committee. *Schools and Public Libraries Working Together in School Library Service*. N.E.A., 1941.

¹¹ See bibliography, p.171-72.

¹² National Society for the Study of Education. *Forty-second Yearbook, Pt. II: The Library in General Education*. 1943. (Distributed by the Department of Education, Univ. of Chicago.)

have from time to time been responsible for significant activities and thoroughgoing studies of school library conditions in their own areas. Among such studies are: Waples and Carnovsky, *Libraries and Readers in the State of New York*,¹³ prepared as a contribution to the New York State Regent's Inquiry Into the Character and Cost of Public Education; and a comprehensive survey of secondary school libraries in California prepared jointly by the California State Department of Education and the School Library Association of California.¹⁴ Both appeared in 1939. A monograph put out by the New Jersey Secondary School Teachers Association, *The Library as School Function and Activity*,¹⁵ provides another excellent example of deep interest and discerning study.

The appearance of school library supervisors on the staffs of a rapidly growing number of state offices of education is another evidence of the importance attached by educational agencies to school library service, as was the recent appointment by the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States of a regional supervisor to serve for a year in the area covered by that association. The example of library and educational partnership provided by the the standing Joint Committee of the Ohio Education Association and the Ohio Library Association is also worth noting. The committee brings to the attention of the two organizations matters of mutual concern and encourages surveys, studies, workshops and similar activities.

III. EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS

Most librarians are familiar with the benefactions of Andrew Carnegie and the Carnegie Corporation of New York in the field of public library service, but not as many know what the Carnegie Corporation and several other foundations, particularly the general Education Board, the Rockefeller Foundation, and the Rosenwald Fund, have done to further the development of organized school library service.

Aid to school libraries from the Carnegie Corporation has been more or less indirectly furnished through endowments, special grants, and subventions for the carrying on of significant surveys and studies, including

¹³ Waples, Douglas, and Carnovsky, Leon. *Libraries and Readers in the State of New York*. Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1939.

¹⁴ California State Department of Education. *The Secondary School Library in California*. State Department of Education, 1939. (Bulletin no.2, April 1939)

¹⁵ New Jersey Secondary School Teachers Association. *The Library as School Function and Activity*. The Association, 1940.

several dealing with professional education for librarianship and the preparation of teacher-librarians.

Much of the aid from the other foundations has also been indirect. But not all. To direct benefactions from the General Education Board and the Rosenwald Fund can be traced not a little of the unusual development of school libraries and school library service during the last two decades in the South. Thanks to a three-year grant from the General Education Board, one of the southern library schools was able to experiment on a large scale with a graduate curriculum devoted expressly to the preparation of librarians for schools.¹⁶ Perhaps more important was the offer of the Board to finance in such southern states as desired it a three-year experiment in school library supervision under a competent supervisor appointed by the state board of education. So successful were these experiments that in nearly every case the special office of school library supervision has been continued by the state itself after the experimental period was over. The result has been that at the present time only two southern states lack state supervision and school library service has moved forward at a most encouraging pace.

The Julius Rosenwald Fund, particularly interested in Negro education, has likewise given direct aid. In the early 1930's the Fund participated in demonstrations of county library service for rural areas through eleven county libraries.¹⁷ New school buildings financed by the Fund were provided with attractive library rooms and it was made possible for Negro schools to purchase library books through the Fund at less than two-thirds of cost.

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¹⁶ George Peabody College for Teachers. The curriculum has in recent years been modified to prepare for general library work also.

¹⁷ Wilson, L. R., and Wight, E. A. *County Library Service in the South*. Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1935.

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WILSON, L. R., and WIGHT, E. A. *County Library Service in the South*. Univ. of Chicago Pr., 1935. The work of the educational foundations is well covered. Consult index under names of the foundations.

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The American Library Association

The American Library Association, established in 1876, is an organization of libraries, librarians, library trustees and others interested in the responsibilities of libraries in the educational, social and cultural needs of society. It is affiliated with more than fifty other library associations in this country and abroad. It works closely with many organizations concerned with education, recreation, research, and public service. Its activities are carried on by a headquarters staff, voluntary boards and committees, and by divisions, sections, and round tables, all interested in various aspects or types of library service. Its program includes information and advisory services, personnel service, field work, annual and midwinter conferences, and the publication — not for profit — of numerous professional books, pamphlets and periodicals.

